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PREFACE.

THE prominent and characteristic features of the Author's series of school histories have won for these books a large share of public favor, and have secured their introduction into a great number of schools in every part of the country. Of these books the *Manual of General History* has been, perhaps, the most conspicuously successful, having been for many years used in a large number of colleges, preparatory schools, academies, and seminaries, and having been commended, after a mature practical test of its merits, by many intelligent and accomplished educators, as a work that contains not only a clear and brief statement of all the facts needed to afford a basis for a complete course of historical study, but also such aids to teacher and pupil as are requisite to facilitate the work both of instruction and of acquisition.

It is not intended to supersede this work by the *New Manual*, here presented to the public, but to supply, by means of it, a somewhat more extended course of history, especially with regard to the progress of civilization among mankind, so as to show the distinguishing traits of each separate people in respect to religion, manners and customs, and advancement in literature and the arts.

There has been, for some time, a growing tendency in the public mind to study rather those things that directly concern the life of the people, as such, than the facts of national or political history. Certainly, this department of knowledge has a most fascinating interest; but it must be borne in mind that the great movements of mankind are connected rather with their national than their social history; and, hence, it is a false system that makes the former subordinate to the latter,

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care has been exercised to keep this branch
within its just limits.
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work.

inasmuch as it prevents the confusion that is necessarily caused in the minds of the pupils by a constant interruption of the current of events in passing from nation to nation. Synchronistic exercises and reviews are, however, freely given, which will serve to bring into intimate relation, and give unity of aspect to, all the great contemporaneous events in the national life of each separate people.

In the cuts inserted to illustrate the text, the object has been not merely embellishment, but, by addressing the eye, to afford information to the pupil in regard to matters a verbal account or description of which would necessarily be imperfect or insufficient.

It has been also the aim of the Author, himself a practical teacher, to render this work a valuable and effective instrument in imparting instruction. Hence, it has been provided with outline reviews, topical synopses, and chronological tables, designed to facilitate the labors of both instructor and student. To this object the analytical table of contents and pronouncing index will be found to contribute.

The latest and best authorities have been consulted in the compilation of this work; and every effort has been made to give it all the freshness of interest, and clearness of expression, possible in such a work.

The *New Manual,* it is confidently believed, will be found to contain all the requirements for a complete course of history for all institutions of every grade, above that of the grammar-school, that have not the time to devote to the study of the minute history of different nations in separate volumes. It consists of two parts,—the first devoted to ancient, and the second to mediæval and modern history. These parts are issued together in a single book, as well as in two separate volumes, the first being confined to ancient history, the second comprehending both mediæval and modern.

NEW YORK, Feb. 1, 1882.

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story of Greece.
, Rise of the Macedonian Empire.
l Life in Greece.
E., Studies on Homer and the Homeric Age. 3 vols.

INTRODUCTION

1. HISTORY is a narration of the events which have happened among mankind. It includes an account of the rise and fall of nations, their dealings one with another, their government and institutions, and the causes of their growth and decline. This is sometimes called *political history*. History is also a record of the progress of mankind in civilization, giving an account of the manners, customs, and social life of different peoples, and their advancement in science, art, literature, and religion. This has been termed *civil history*. History treats particularly of those nations which have occupied a prominent place among mankind by reason of their energy, enterprise, intelligence, and culture.

History defined.

Political history.

Civil history.

2. The *origin of nations* is shrouded in obscurity; but modern scholars by patient study and research have, to some extent, shown the relationship of different portions of mankind, by a comparison of their physical peculiarities, their languages, and the remains of their literature, science, and art. Thus history is indebted for its progress to three branches of study and investigation: 1. *Ethnology*, or a knowledge of the races of mankind; 2. *Comparative philology*, or the study of the affinities of languages; and 3. *Archæology*, or the study of the remains of ancient art, science, and literature, such as inscriptions, monuments, architectural remains, pottery, medals, *coins, etc.*

Origin of nations.

Aids to history.

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Comparative philology.

Aryan languages.

5. Different languages present three varieties of structure, or stages of development, which have been designated the *monosyllabic*, the *agglutinative*, and the *inflected.* The monosyllabic languages consist only of simple words expressing the ideas without regard to their relation to other words. Of these the Chinese is an example. The monosyllabic seems to be the simplest and earliest form of language. The agglutinative are those in which two roots are joined together to form words, one of them losing its independent meaning and becoming subsidiary to the other. The languages which have been called *Turanian** comprise all those spoken in Europe and Asia, except the Aryan and Semitic. The latter are inflected languages; that is, those in which the roots coalesce, neither retaining its independent meaning. Though the Semitic languages were

Kinds of languages.

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spoken by the nations who dwelt in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, and in Syria and Arabia, they were not restricted to those countries, but were spoken by a large part of the Hamitic nations.

Semitic.

6. As far as we know, the nations that have performed the grandest achievements, made the most progress in civilization, and hence occupied the most conspicuous place in history, are the descendants of the primitive Aryans.* The Semitic and Hamitic nations seem to have more rapidly reached their maturity; but their civilization was of a peculiar character, having but little in common with that of the Aryan race, as developed in the growth of the greatest of modern nations, both of Europe and America. In art, science, and literature, this peculiarity is very marked, but is more especially so in religion. Some of the Semitic nations, as the Hebrews, had early reached a sublime height in their religious beliefs and institutions; while others, though they seem to have had pure and just views at the commencement of their national existence, soon fell into corrupt and superstitious notions and observances.

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Different epochs.

8. Still, certain fixed points of time have been assumed by different nations of a very great antiquity. Thus, the Babylonians used the *era of Nabonassar*, 747 B.C.—the earliest instance of a national epoch; the Romans, the era of the *Foundation of Rome*, 753 B.C. (or, according to some authorities, 752 B.C.); the Greeks, the *era of the Olympiads*, 776 B.C.; and the Mohammedans, in latter times, the *Hegira*, or *Flight of Mohammed*, 622 A.D.

Monuments.

9. In establishing the date of ancient events, much aid has been afforded by the discovery of monuments of great antiquity bearing chronological inscriptions. Of these, one of the most noted is the *Parian Marble*, brought to England from Smyrna by the Earl of Arundel. It contains a chronological arrangement of important events in Greek history, from the earliest times to 355 B.C. The *Assyrian Canon*, discovered by Sir Henry Rawlinson, consists of a number of clay tablets, constructed in the reign of Sardanapa'lus, and containing a complete scheme of Assyrian

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chronology, verified by the record of a solar eclipse, which must have occurred June 15, B.C. 763. One of the most interesting remains of this kind is that of the *Fasti Capitolini*, discovered at Rome, partly in 1547, and partly in 1817 and 1818. These records are in fragments, but they contain a list of the Roman magistrates and triumphs, from the commencement of the Republic to the end of the reign of Augustus. To these might be added many others of great interest, particularly the famous *Rosetta Stone*, the inscription on which in the Egyptian and Greek languages was fortunately deciphered, thus leading to the discovery of a key to the meaning of the hieroglyphic writings on the monuments.* [See *Egypt*.]

Fasti Capitolini.

10. Besides these monumental inscriptions, the books of ancient writers, which have come down to us from antiquity, form a copious source of ancient history. Such are the fragments of San-cho-ni-a'thon and Be-ro'sus in regard to Phœnician and Assyrian history; the lists of Egyptian kings supplied by Man'e-tho; and the writings of Herodotus, called the "Father of History," which have survived the wrecks and mutations of more than twenty-three centuries, giving us a graphic picture of ancient nations—their history, manners, and customs, as well as a geographical description of the countries which they occupied.

Ancient writings.

* The nations of antiquity made use to a very large extent of this mode of commemorating events. In Egypt, in Assyria, in Babylonia, in Armenia, in Persia, in Phœnicia, in Lycia, in Greece, in Italy, historical events of importance were from time to time recorded in this way—sometimes on the natural rock, which was commonly smoothed for the purpose; sometimes on obelisks or pillars; frequently upon the walls of temples, palaces, and tombs; occasionally upon metal plates, or upon tablets and cylinders of fine clay—hard and durable materials, all of them capable of lasting hundreds or even thousands of years, and in many cases continuing to the present day. . . . The histories of Egypt and Assyria have been in a great measure reconstructed from the inscriptions of the two countries. The great inscription of Behistun has thrown much light upon the early history of Persia. That on the Delphic tripod has illustrated the most glorious period of Greece. It is now generally felt that inscriptions are among the most important of ancient records, and that their intrinsic value makes up to a great extent for *their comparative scantiness*."—*Rawlinson*.

11. History is most conveniently divided into *Ancient, Mediæval,* and *Modern History.* Ancient history may properly be considered to end 476 A.D., the date of the destruction of the western division of the Roman Empire. Mediæval history, or the History of the Middle Ages, extends from 476 A.D. to about the time of the fall of the eastern division of the Roman Empire, in 1453, or nearly to the end of the fifteenth century, at the time of the discovery of America by Columbus, 1492. All subsequent history belongs to the third division. This mode of dividing the subject is, however, entirely arbitrary. History is also divided into *Sacred* and *Profane History,* the former being that which is contained in the *Old* and *New Testaments,* and the latter that recorded in other books. *Ecclesiastical History* is the history of the Church. The history of civilization, to which considerable prominence is given in this work, gives an account of the progress of nations in the arts, sciences, literature, and social culture.

Divisions of history.

12. The *Philosophy of History* is a most important department of the subject. It considers not simply the events which have occurred in the past, but traces their causes, and deduces from them certain principles, to serve as a guide to statesmen in conducting the affairs of a nation, or to illustrate the general characteristics of human nature. Viewed in this light, history has been styled "philosophy teaching by example;" and it has been remarked by a distinguished writer that "social advancement is as completely under the control of natural law as is bodily growth. The life of an individual is a miniature of the life of a nation."

Philosophy of history.

A LIST OF WORKS FOR STUDY AND REFERENCE.

The following works are recommended to the student who desires to acquire a complete knowledge of ancient history, or who wishes to make a special study of any single department of the subject, or to obtain a full account of any particular nation. It need scarcely be said that this list is by no means exhaustive; though it embraces all that is needed for a full course of reading, or that would be required for the ordinary purposes of consultation. Most of the standard authorities upon each nation are given, as well as those that are especially useful and interesting for the light they throw upon the condition and progress of the most ancient peoples, such as the Egyptians, Assyrians, Phœnicians, and early Greeks, or Hellenes. It is in this field of archæological and historical research that the explorers and writers of the last quarter of a century have won their chief distinction. This list is divided into three parts: (I.) works pertaining to the earliest times; (II.) those relating to Greece; and (III.) those relating to Rome.

I. **Bunsen's** Egypt's Place in Universal History (translated from the French, by Cottrell and Birch). 2 vols.
Brugsch, *Histoire de l'Egypte des les premiers temps de son existence.*
Wilkinson, Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians.
Smith, W., Dictionary of the Bible, articles *Egypt*, *Phœnicia*, *Tyre*, etc.
Rawlinson, Sir Henry C., Outline of the History of Assyria.
Rawlinson, George, Translation of Herodotus. 4 vols.
" " Manual of Ancient History.
" " The Five Great Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World. 3 vols.
" " The Sixth Great Oriental Monarchy.
" " Origin of Nations.
Kenrick, J., Phœnicia.
Smith, R. P., Carthage and the Carthaginians.
Milman, H. H., History of the Jews.
Layard, Nineveh and its Remains.
" Discoveries among the Ruins of Nineveh and Babylon.
Grant, History of India.
Schliemann, Ancient Mycenæ.
" Troy and its Remains.
Davis, Dr. N., Carthage and her Remains.
Yeats, The Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce, from B.C. 1500 to A.D. 1789.

II. **Niebuhr**, Lectures on the Ethnography and Geography of Ancient Greece.
Grote, History of Greece. 12 vols.
Curtius, History of Greece. 5 vols.
Smith, W., History of Greece.
Curteis, A. M., Rise of the Macedonian Empire.
Mahaffy, Social Life in Greece.
Gladstone, W. E., Studies on Homer and the Homeric Age. 3 vols.
" *Juventus Mundi*; the Gods and Men of the Homeric Age.

III. **Mommsen**, The History of Rome. 4 vols.
Merivale, History of the Romans. 7 vols.
Niebuhr, History of Rome. 3 vols.
Arnold, History of Rome. 4 vols.
Forsyth, Life of Cicero. 2 vols.
Froude, Cæsar: a Sketch.
Trollope, Life of Cicero. 2 vols.
Liddell, History of Rome.
Leighton, History of Rome.
Smith, W., Dictionary of Grecian and Roman Antiquities.
Becker, Gallus, or Roman Scenes of the Time of Augustus.
De Coulanges, The Ancient City: a Study on the Religion, Laws, and Institutions of Greece and Rome.
Gibbon, Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. 4 vols.
Long, Decline of the Roman Republic. 5 vols.

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Origin of nations.

Aids to history.

Races.

3. There are three great races of which history especially treats,—the *Ar'yans,** the *Sem'ites* or *Shem'ites,* and the *Ham'ites.*† The Aryans are often called the *Indo-Europeans,* because the primitive race appears to have separated into two branches, one passing to the west into Europe, and the other to the south-east into India. The place where this separation took place seems to have been in the region situated to the south-east of the Caspian Sea, sometimes called the plateau of Iran. Thence they entered the Indian peninsula, and laid the foundation of the peculiar civilization, language, and literature of the Hindoos. The ancient Persians, as well as that kindred people, the Medes, were also descendants of this ancient race. In their great migrations to the west they occupied Greece, Italy, and other parts of Europe, thus laying the foundations not only of the Græco-Roman nations, but of the Thracians, Celts, Slavs, Germans, etc. Relics of the peoples displaced by this powerful wave of migration still exist in Europe. Such are the Basques, a small tribe living on both sides of the Pyrenees, and the Finns and Laps.‡ To the Semites proper belonged the Canaanites, Hebrews, Syrians, Chaldeans (*kal-de'ans*), Samaritans, and Arabians; to the Hamites, often included among the Semitic nations, the Assyrians, Babylonians, ancient Phœnicians, Egyptians, and Ethiopians.

Aryans.

Semites.

4. It is by the study of the languages of different nations

* *Arya,* in the later Sanskrit, signifies *excellent.* In the *Vedas,* the most ancient Sanskrit writings, the Hindoos style themselves Aryans; and the name *Airya* was applied to a part of southern and western Asia (India and Iran) to distinguish it from the countries of less civilized nations.

† The terms *Semites* and *Semitic* (more properly *Shemites* and *Shemitic*) have been applied to the supposed descendants of Shem; as *Hamites* and *Hamitic* denote the races who are supposed to have descended from Ham.

‡ "The results of Germanic antiquarian research lead to the conclusion that in England, France, the north of Germany, and Scandinavia, before the settlement of the Indo-Europeans in those lands, there must have dwelt, or rather roamed, a people, perhaps of Mongolian race, gaining their subsistence by hunting and fishing, making their implements of stone, clay, or bones, adorning themselves with the teeth of animals and with amber, but unacquainted with agriculture and the use of the metals."—*Mommsen's History of Rome.*

that their affinities have been traced. Thus, in regard to the Aryan or Indo-European race, it is found that the names of many common objects are the same in all the languages and dialects spoken by these people; and it could not reasonably be supposed that two nations widely separated would have independently selected the same name for the same object. For example, the word for *house* in Greek is *domos*, in Latin *domus*, in Sanskrit *dama*, in Zend (Persian) *demana;* and from the same root comes our word *domestic*. The words, also, for ploughing, grinding corn, building, etc., are found to be nearly identical. This serves to show, first, that these nations must have had a common origin, and, secondly, that they practiced farming, made bread, and built houses. By observing in this way the similitudes of words having the same meaning, comparative philology has been the means of throwing much light on the affinities of different peoples.

Comparative philology.

Aryan languages.

5. Different languages present three varieties of structure, or stages of development, which have been designated the *monosyllabic*, the *agglutinative*, and the *inflected*. The monosyllabic languages consist only of simple words expressing the ideas without regard to their relation to other words. Of these the Chinese is an example. The monosyllabic seems to be the simplest and earliest form of language. The agglutinative are those in which two roots are joined together to form words, one of them losing its independent meaning and becoming subsidiary to the other. The languages which have been called *Turanian** comprise all those spoken in Europe and Asia, except the Aryan and Semitic. The latter are inflected languages; that is, those in which the roots coalesce, neither retaining its independent meaning. Though the Semitic languages were

Kinds of languages.

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7. *Chronology* is a department of history which treats of the exact time, or date, of each event with reference to some fixed point of time, called an *era* or *epoch*. The epoch employed in our times by Christian nations

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Different epochs.

8. Still, certain fixed points of time have been assumed by different nations of a very great antiquity. Thus, the Babylonians used the *era of Nabonassar*, 747 B.C.—the earliest instance of a national epoch; the Romans, the era of the *Foundation of Rome*, 753 B.C. (or, according to some authorities, 752 B.C.); the Greeks, the *era of the Olympiads*, 776 B.C.; and the Mohammedans, in latter times, the *Hegira*, or *Flight of Mohammed*, 622 A.D.

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chronology, verified by the record of a solar eclipse, which must have occurred June 15, B.C. 763. One of the most interesting remains of this kind is that of the *Fasti Capitolini*, discovered at Rome, partly in 1547, and partly in 1817 and 1818. These records are in fragments, but they contain a list of the Roman magistrates and triumphs, from the commencement of the Republic to the end of the reign of Augustus. To these might be added many others of great interest, particularly the famous *Rosetta Stone*, the inscription on which in the Egyptian and Greek languages was fortunately deciphered, thus leading to the discovery of a key to the meaning of the hieroglyphic writings on the monuments.* [See *Egypt.*]

Fasti Capitolini.

10. Besides these monumental inscriptions, the books of ancient writers, which have come down to us from antiquity, form a copious source of ancient history. Such are the fragments of San-cho-ni-a'thon and Be-ro'sus in regard to Phœnician and Assyrian history; the lists of Egyptian kings supplied by Man'e-tho; and the writings of Herodotus, called the "Father of History," which have survived the wrecks and mutations of more than twenty-three centuries, giving us a graphic picture of ancient nations—their history, manners, and customs, as well as a geographical description of the countries which they occupied.

Ancient writings.

* The nations of antiquity made use to a very large extent of this mode of commemorating events. In Egypt, in Assyria, in Babylonia, in Armenia, in Persia, in Phœnicia, in Lycia, in Greece, in Italy, historical events of importance were from time to time recorded in this way—sometimes on the natural rock, which was commonly smoothed for the purpose; sometimes on obelisks or pillars; frequently upon the walls of temples, palaces, and tombs; occasionally upon metal plates, or upon tablets and cylinders of fine clay—hard and durable materials, all of them capable of lasting hundreds or even thousands of years, and in many cases continuing to the present day. . . . The histories of Egypt and Assyria have been in a great measure reconstructed from the inscriptions of the two countries. The great inscription of Behistun has thrown much light upon the early history of Persia. That on the Delphic tripod has illustrated the most glorious period of Greece. It is now generally felt that inscriptions are among the most important of ancient records, and that their intrinsic value makes up to a great extent for their comparative scantiness."—*Rawlinson.*

11. History is most conveniently divided into *Ancient, Mediæval,* and *Modern History.* Ancient history may properly be considered to end 476 A.D., the date of the destruction of the western division of the Roman Empire. Mediæval history, or the History of the Middle Ages, extends from 476 A.D. to about the time of the fall of the eastern division of the Roman Empire, in 1453, or nearly to the end of the fifteenth century, at the time of the discovery of America by Columbus, 1492. All subsequent history belongs to the third division. This mode of dividing the subject is, however, entirely arbitrary. History is also divided into *Sacred* and *Profane History,* the former being that which is contained in the *Old* and *New Testaments,* and the latter that recorded in other books. *Ecclesiastical History* is the history of the Church. The history of civilization, to which considerable prominence is given in this work, gives an account of the progress of nations in the arts, sciences, literature, and social culture.

Divisions of history.

12. The *Philosophy of History* is a most important department of the subject. It considers not simply the events which have occurred in the past, but traces their causes, and deduces from them certain principles, to serve as a guide to statesmen in conducting the affairs of a nation, or to illustrate the general characteristics of human nature. Viewed in this light, history has been styled "philosophy teaching by example;" and it has been remarked by a distinguished writer that "social advancement is as completely under the control of natural law as is bodily growth. The life of an individual is a miniature of the life of a nation."

Philosophy of history.

Ethnological Synopsis.

I. ARYANS or INDO-EUROPEANS.

- I. Aryans proper:
  - 1. Iranians;
  - 2. Indians.
- II. Græco-Roman Races:
  - 1. Greeks, Thracians, and Albanians;
  - 2. Italo-Celtic races.
    - *a.* Latins and Romans;
    - *b.* Gauls, British, Gael.
- III. Slavo-German Races:
  - 1. Slavs.
    - *a.* Russians;
    - *b.* Poles, Czechs, Serbs;
  - 2. Baltics;
  - 3. Germans, Goths, Scandinavians.

II. SEMITES.

- I. Canaanites:
  - 1. Phœnicians;
  - 2. Hebrews.
- II. Arameans:
  - 1. Syrians;
  - 2. Chaldeans;
  - 3. Samaritans.
- III. Arabs:
  - 1. Abyssinians, Amharras;
  - 2. Moors or Koranites.

III. HAMITES.

- I. Mesopotamians:
  - 1. Assyrians;
  - 2. Babylonians;
  - 3. Ancient Phœnicians.
- II. Ancient Egyptians:
  - 1. Copts or Modern Egyptians;
  - 2. Ethiopians;
  - 3. Libyans.

N

NORTHERN OCEAN
Arctic Circle
Thule
Orcades Is.
BRITISH ISLANDS
CALEDONIA
HIBERNIA
German Ocean
Sarmatian Ocean
SARMATI
GERMANY
Cassiterides
English Chan.
Hercynia Silva
Carpates Mts.
Danube R.
Lugdunum
Rhaetia
Aquileia
DACIA
Danube
Taurus
Chersonese
EUXINE OR BLACK SEA
ASIATIC SARMATIA
Hypanis
HISPANIA OR SPAIN
Corsica
Sardinia
Neapolis
Tagus R.
Gades
Fretum
MAURITANIA
Carthago
Sicilia
Melita
Troja
Ephesus
Athens
Tauros Mts.
Cyprus
Creta
Alexandria
CYRENAICA
Ammon
Memphis
Coptos
Thebes
Berenice
Petra
Ezion-geber
Fortunate Is.
Garamantes
LIBYA
Tropic of Cancer
Libyan Desert
OR
Solventia Pr.
AFRICA
Nigritia
Libyan Lake
Niger
Ethiopians
ETHIOPIA
Merbe
Berenice
Epidires
Avalites
Great Gulf
Equator
Longitude

THE WORLD
AS KNOWN TO THE ANCIENTS
Hyperboreal Mts.
Y T H I A
Jaxartes R.
Massagetae
Jaxartes R.
S C Y T H I A
Maracanda
SOGDIANA
Bactra
BACTRIANA
Paropamisus Mts.
Taxila
Emodi or Himalaya Mts.
Indus
Ganges
Gulf of the Ganges
Sabara
Nigama
Anurogrammum
Tabrobane
(Ceylon)
Great Gulf
Desert
GEDROSIA
ERYTHRAEAN SEA
I N D I A N O C E A N
BEYOND THE IMAUS MTS.
60
70
80
90
100
110
70
60
50
40
20
10
0

PART I.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

THE ANCIENT MONARCHIES.

SECTION I.

THE BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS.

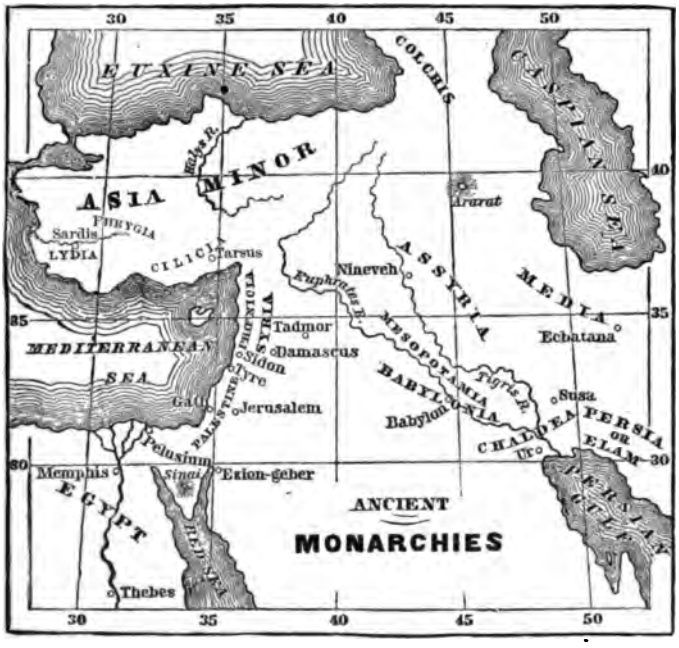
1. Babylonia or Chaldea. The region watered by the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in very early times attracted to it a large population. Its fertility was extraordinary. It produced in great abundance everything requisite for the support of man. The cereal grains, wheat, barley, and millet, flourished luxuriantly.* An abundance of clay afforded material for the manufacture of bricks for building, and the wells of bitumen yielded an excellent cement. These supplied the place of wood, stone, and mortar.† It is not surprising, therefore,

Region of the Tigris and Euphrates.

* "Of all the countries that we know of, there is none so fruitful in grain. It makes no pretension indeed of growing the fig, the olive, the vine, or any other tree of the kind; but in grain it is so fruitful as to yield two hundred-fold. The blade of the wheat plant and barley plant is often three or four fingers in breadth. As for the millet and the sesame, I shall not say to what height they grow, though within my own knowledge; for I am not ignorant that what I have already written concerning the fruitfulness of Babylonia must seem incredible to those who have never visited the country."—*Herodotus.*

† "Stone and marble were even more rare in this country than wood, but the clay was well adapted for the manufacture of bricks. These, whether dried in the sun or burnt in kilns, became so hard and durable that now, after the lapse of so many centuries, the remains of ancient walls preserve the bricks uninjured by

that this region was, at a very early period, crowded with inhabitants, and soon became the seat of populous cities and powerful empires.



GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

Find the situation of: ASSYRIA, BABYLONIA, CHALDEA, MESOPOTAMIA, PERSIA, MEDIA, PHENICIA, PALESTINE, SYRIA, ASIA MINOR, LYDIA, PHRYGIA, CILICIA, COLCHIS, EGYPT, Babylon, Nineveh, Ur, Susa, Ecbatana, Jerusalem, Memphis, Sidon, Tyre, Thebes, Damascus, Pelusium, Tadmor, Tarsus.

their long exposure to the atmosphere, and retaining the impression of the inscriptions as perfectly as if they had only just been manufactured. Naphtha and bitumen were produced in great abundance above Babylon, near the modern town of Hit. These served as substitutes for mortar and cement; and so lasting were they, that the layers of rushes and palm-leaves laid between the courses of bricks as a binding material, are found at this day in the ruins of Babylon as perfect as if a year had not elapsed since they were put together."—*Taylor's Ancient History.*

2. Three monarchies successively occupied the basin of these rivers: 1. The Chaldean, or First Babylonian Monarchy; 2. The Assyrian Empire; 3. The Later Babylonian Monarchy. Chaldea, or Babylonia, occupied the plain which extends north from the Persian Gulf, and which was originally called Shinar. The district lying between these two rivers was afterwards called by the Greeks *Mes'o-po-ta'mi-a* (from *mesos*, midst, and *pot'amoi*, rivers).

Chaldean and Babylonian Monarchies.

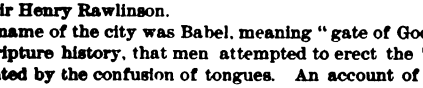
Mesopotamia.

3. The Chaldees had, as early as 2000 B.C., made considerable progress in the arts, particularly in architecture. With their materials for building, brick and bitumen, they constructed vast edifices, the ruins of some of which have been discovered in recent times by the explorations of Botta and Layard, at Nineveh and Babylon. Monuments have also been exhumed, bearing inscriptions in what are called *cu-ne'i-form* (wedge-shaped) characters, and the deciphering of these has served to throw a flood of light upon the early history of this people.*

The Chaldees.

4. The city of Babylon,† although founded probably more than twenty-two centuries B.C., was, during its early history,

* This kind of writing was used for monumental records, and was either hewn or carved in rocks and sculptures, or impressed on tiles and bricks. The most ancient date that can be assigned to this kind of writing is about 2000 B.C., and it seems not to have been used much, if at all, about 300 B.C. Much labor and erudition have been expended in deciphering these cuneiform inscriptions. The following, which is the name of Darius in these characters, will give some idea of their form and appearance:



The great inscription of Behistun, in Persia, is of peculiar interest and value. It is engraved in three forms of cuneiform writing, upon the perpendicular face of a mountain, at an elevation of 300 feet, and contains an account of the genealogy of Darius, his exploits, and the provinces of the empire. This inscription was deciphered by Sir Henry Rawlinson.

† The native name of the city was Babel, meaning "gate of God." It was here, according to Scripture history, that men attempted to erect the Tower of Babel, but were prevented by the confusion of tongues. An account of this has been recently discovered among the cuneiform tablets now in the British Museum.

a city of minor importance, for Ur and others were capital cities while it continued to be a mere village.* Several cities are mentioned as prominent—Babylon, Ur, Ac'cad, E'rech, Cal'neh, and some others. Of these Babylon afterwards was the capital of the monarchy, and, after the Assyrian conquest, became, through the enterprise, ambition, and luxurious taste of its reigning sovereigns, the most splendid city in the world. Babylonia was south of Assyria, being separated from it by the limit of the alluvial plain. The name Chaldea was given more particularly to the region bordering on Arabia and the Persian Gulf.

Babylon.

Babylonia and Chaldea.

5. The Hebrew records afford but scanty information in regard to the origin and history of these early monarchies; but the remains of the history written by Be-ro'sus, with what has been gleaned from the inscriptions on the walls of ruined palaces, and on the monuments, give us a slight clue to some of the prominent events in Babylonian and Assyrian history. Berosus was a priest of Babylon, who lived about three centuries B.C., and from ancient records compiled a work in which he gave lists of kings whose reigns extended from 2000 B.C. to the conquest of the Babylonian monarchy.

Berosus.

6. These lists are lost, but fragments remain in the works of other writers, showing that a Chaldean dynasty ruled from about 2000 B.C. to 1543 B.C., which was succeeded by an Arabian dynasty that lasted 245 years. This was followed by one of forty-five kings, probably Assyrian, who held sway during more than five centuries, to 772 B.C., after which came the reign of the noted king Pul, who

Early Dynasties.

* "The architectural remains discovered in southern Babylonia, taken in conjunction with the monumental records, seem to indicate that Babylon was not at first the capital, nor indeed a town of great importance. It probably owed its position at the head of Nimrod's cities to the power and pre-eminence whereto it afterward attained rather than to any original superiority that it could boast over the places coupled with it."—*Smith's Dictionary of the Bible.*

is called in the Scriptures an Assyrian. This reign ended at the famous Era of Na-bo-nas'sar, 747 B.C., which is important, because Babylonia then resumed its ancient independence, that had been absorbed in the Assyrian empire since 1250 B.C., and because this date is fixed by certain astronomical phenomena observed by Ptolemy, the Alexandrian astronomer.

Era of Nabonassar.

7. **Later Babylonian Monarchy.** By what is called the Canon of Ptolemy, the line of Babylonian kings becomes known to us from the year 747 B.C. to 330 B.C., when Babylon became a part of the dominions of Alexander the Great. During this period Babylon again became subject to Assyria (680 B.C.), and so continued till the taking of the Assyrian capital, Nineveh, by the Medes (625 B.C.), when the Babylonian king, Na-bo-po-las'sar, who had formed an alliance with the Medes, was acknowledged as an independent sovereign, and received a share of the conquered Assyrian dominions. The later Babylonian kingdom, then formed, lasted till the taking of Babylon by Cyrus the Persian (538 B.C.).

Canon of Ptolemy.

Nabopolassar.

8. Though of brief duration, this was a period of great splendor. Nabopolassar's reign, which was one of military glory, was succeeded by that of the celebrated King Neb-u-chad-nez'zar, who defeated the king of Egypt, and subdued Je-hoi'a-kim, King of Judah. Subsequently he destroyed Jerusalem, and put an end to the kingdom of Judah, under Zed-e-ki'ah, carrying its inhabitants captives to Babylon (586 B.C.). Tyre also fell before his conquering arms (585 B.C.). He afterward turned his attention to the embellishment of his capital, and erected in Babylon many edifices of wonderful extent and magnificence.

Nebuchadnezzar.

9. Babylon formed a vast square crossed diagonally by the Euphrates, and surrounded by a double row of walls, which, according to the account given by Herodotus, were 335 feet high and 85 feet thick, enclosing

Babylon.

an area of nearly 200 square miles. These walls were pierced with a hundred brazen gates and defended by numerous towers. The royal palace, within which was the famous "hanging garden," classed among the Seven Wonders of the World, and the great temple of Bel, were the most remarkable buildings.* The latter was constructed in the form of a pyramid of eight square stages, each side of the basement being 600 feet; and on the top, reached by a winding ascent, there was an image of the god, 40 feet high. It was this magnificence that prompted Nebuchadnezzar's haughty boast: "Is not this great Babylon that I have built for the house of the kingdom, by the might of my power, and for the honor of my majesty?" †

10. After the death of Nebuchadnezzar, the Babylonian kingdom declined. He had four successors, the last of whom was Na-bo-na'di-us, who associated his son Bel-shaz'zar with him on the throne. During this reign the kingdom was invaded by Cyrus the Great, king of Persia, and Nabonadius was defeated. Babylon, also, being carelessly defended by Belshazzar, was entered by Cyrus, who diverted the course of the Euphrates, and Babylonia became a Persian province (538 B.C.). ‡

Fall of Babylon.

* "Within the precincts of the royal palace, Nebuchadnezzar raised up to a vast height a pile of stone substructions, giving them as far as possible the appearance of natural hills. He then planted the whole with trees of different kinds, and thus constructed what is called the hanging garden; all which he did to please his wife, who had been brought up in Media, and delighted in the scenery of mountain regions."—*Berosus.*

† "The descriptions of Babylon which have come down to us in classical writers are derived chiefly from two sources, the works of Herodotus and Ctesias. Those authors were, both of them, eye-witnesses of the glories of Babylon—not, indeed, at their highest point, but before they had greatly declined—and left accounts of the city and its chief buildings, which the historians and geographers of later times were, for the most part, content to copy."—*Dr. Smith.*

‡ "Belshazzar, who was probably a mere youth, left to enjoy the supreme power without check or control, neglected the duty of watching the enemy, and gave himself up to enjoyment. The feast of which we read in Daniel, and which suffered such an awful interruption, may have been in part a religious festivity; but it indicates, nevertheless, the self-indulgent temper of the king, who could give

11. The Assyrian Empire. The Assyrians were probably a Chaldean colony that settled in the region of the upper Tigris. The capital was at first As'shur (now Ki'leh Sher'gat), on the right bank of that river; but afterward the seat of the empire was the renowned city of Nin'eveh, about sixty miles above, on the same river. The latter subsequently became one of the finest and most populous cities in the world. Ca'lah, another important city on the Tigris, and for a time the capital of the empire, was very ancient, its foundation being ascribed, in the ancient Hebrew records, to the patriarch Asshur.

Nineveh.

12. The history of the Assyrian monarchy, extending over more than six centuries, may be divided into three periods: 1. Previous to the conquest of Babylon (about 1250 B.C.); 2. From the conquest of Babylon to the reign of Tiglath-pile'ser II. (745 B.C.); 3. From the accession of Tiglath-pileser II. to the fall of Nineveh (625 B.C.). Of the first period little is known. The monumental inscriptions supply two lists of kings, some of whom seem to have been connected by intermarriage with the contemporaneous Chaldean monarchs. Among the most celebrated monarchs was Shal-man-e'ser I., a great conqueror, and the builder of Calah.*

Periods.

First Period.

13. During the first three centuries of the second period, the chronology is very imperfect. A great monarch — Tiglath-pileser I.—flourished, and made many conquests.

himself so entirely up to merriment at such a time. While the king and his 'thousand nobles' drank wine out of the sacred vessels of the Jews, the Persian archers entered the city, and a scene of carnage ensued. 'In that night was Belshazzar slain.' "—*Rawlinson.*

* To this period belongs the legendary history of Ninus and his illustrious queen Semir'amis, who succeeded him, and became one of the greatest conquering potentates of antiquity. She is said to have rebuilt Babylon, adorning it with splendid palaces and other costly buildings. She also enlarged and embellished Nineveh, in which she sometimes resided. Music and the arts were also cultivated by her. Her expeditions, we are told by some of the ancient writers, were conducted on a scale of incredible magnificence, her armies numbering millions of men. The history of this wonderful queen is found only among the Greek legends.

In the latter part of the period, Calah was the capital, and became a splendid city, as is shown by the ruins of its palaces and temples which have been disinterred in recent years. The dominions of the empire were greatly enlarged by conquests made in Armenia, Syria, Palestine, and Phœnicia. It was toward the end of the period that Babylon, under Nabonassar, became for a short time independent.

Second Period.

14. The third period commenced with the brilliant conquests of Tiglath-pileser II., who carried the arms of Assyria into distant regions. Egypt and Syria were reduced, and Palestine was invaded, whence many of the Jews were carried captive. His successor, Shal-man-e'ser IV., subdued Phœnicia, but was defeated in an attack on Tyre. The siege of Samaria was commenced during his reign (723 B.C.). Sargon, his successor, was one of the greatest monarchs of this period. This king took Samaria (721 B.C.), and settled the Israelites in Media and other newly-conquered provinces. He also carried on a successful war with Egypt, and received the submission of Cyprus. The whole reign of this monarch was a continued succession of conquests (721–705 B.C.).

Third Period.

Sargon.

15. The splendid city and palace at Khor'sa-bad, near Nineveh, were built under this monarch. This is now only a small village (Mosul) of Asiatic Turkey.* Here have been found the records of Sargon's conquests, in the inscriptions which he caused to be made, and in which he mentions the names of the kings whom he subdued, and enumerates the spoils and tributes which he obtained. In one of these inscriptions he says: "I imposed tribute on Pharaoh of Egypt; on Tsamsi, Queen of Arabia; on Ith'amar, the Sabæan, in gold, spices, horses, and camels."

Records of the Reign.

16. Sen-nach'e-rib, the son and successor of Sargon, ob-

* Here in 1846 the ruins of a magnificent edifice were discovered, leading to the subsequent researches, under Layard and others, that have shed so much light on Assyrian history. [See cut, page 33.]

tained possession of Babylon, and made two expeditions against Judah. In the first of these, he carried away 200,000 of the Jews captives; but in the second he failed entirely, his army being destroyed by a sudden and remarkable pestilence. This was during the reign of the Jewish king Hez-e-ki'ah. Sennacherib was a short time afterward slain by two of his sons (680 B.C.).

Sennacherib.

WARRIOR AND HORSES (KHORSABAD—NINEVEH).

17. The last great king of Assyria was E-sar-had'don, son of Sennacherib. His conquests extended over a large part of western Asia, and he claimed authority over Egypt and Ethiopia. Manas'seh, king of Judah, was brought as a prisoner before him at Babylon; but, after a few years' detention, was restored to his throne by the clemency of the Assyrian monarch. This king reigned alternately at Babylon and Nineveh. His son Asshur-bani-pal (called by some of the Greeks Sar-dan-a-pa'lus) succeeded him (according to Rawlinson, about 667 B.C.), during whose reign Assyria reached the height of its

Esarhaddon.

Asshurbanipal.

greatness and splendor. He made great conquests, built a magnificent palace, and established a royal library at Nineveh. He was a great lover and patron of music and the arts. The sculptured slabs taken from his palace, representing him engaged in hunting, are now in the British Museum. After this splendid reign Assyria rapidly declined. A vast horde of Scythians, from the region north of the Caucasus, made incursions into the territory; and two invasions were made by the Medes, under Cy-ax'a-rēs, in the second of which they were joined by Nabopolassar, the Assyrian governor of Babylon, in an attack upon Nineveh, which was taken and given to the flames.

Fall of Nineveh.

18. The last king of Assyria, Sar'a-cus (sometimes called Sardanapalus II.), perished in the conflagration (625 B.C.). One of the Greek historians, Ctesias (*te'she-as*), describes this king, under the name Sardanapalus, as an effeminate voluptuary, spending his time in idleness, and incapable of making any exertion for the defence of his kingdom. At last aroused from this ignoble sloth, he assumes the command of the army, makes a brilliant effort to repulse the enemy, but is defeated. He then retires to his palace, erects a large funeral pyre, upon which he places his richest treasures and his favorite wives, and finally mounting it himself, sets fire to it and perishes in the flames. The whole story is now believed to be a fiction, although it has long had a place in ancient history. Byron's drama *Sardanapalus* is based on this account. So utterly was Nineveh destroyed, that when Xen'o-phon passed it (401 B.C.), during the expedition of which he gives an account (the *An-ab'a-sis*), the very name had been forgotten, though he testifies to the extent of the deserted city, stating that the height of the ruined walls was 150 feet.*

Legend of Sardanapalus.

* "Traditions of the unrivaled size and magnificence of Nineveh were equally familiar with the Greek and Roman writers, and to the Arab geographers. But the city had fallen so completely into decay before the period of authentic history,

Babylonian and Assyrian Civilization.

19. The Chaldean or Babylonian civilization was, in some respects, different from the Assyrian, though they had much in common. The situation of Babylonia, in the alluvial plain of the Tigris and Euphrates, was quite different from that of Assyria, in the higher plateau region near the upper course of the Tigris. The constant intermingling of the Babylonians and Assyrians, and their union for many centuries under the same government, naturally led to considerable uniformity of manners and customs. These people, in general, belonged to the Semitic race; but in the earliest times the people of Accad, who came from the mountain regions to the north, were Turanians; and the cuneiform inscriptions for many centuries were in the Turanian language.

Babylonian Brick.

20. The Chaldeans were, from the first, an architectural people, and they erected many imposing edifices out of their simple materials —brick and bitumen. Their favorite form was that of the pyramid, rising in steps or stages, sometimes to a great height. The baked bricks which they used in building their palaces were stamped with a legend in cuneiform letters, as seen in the cut. They also under-

Chaldeans.

that no description of it, or even of any of its monuments, is to be found in any ancient author of trust."—*Smith's Dictionary of the Bible.* The destruction of Nineveh forms the subject of the prophecy of Nahum, who lived about a century earlier, when the Assyrian empire was at the height of its power and glory.

stood the working of metals, and to some extent the use of the loom. Their trading caravans journeyed to Bactria, Persia, and Media, and the "ships of Ur" sailed along the coasts of the Persian Gulf. They early became noted for their attention to astronomy, some of their recorded observations extending as far back as 2234 B.C.

Architecture, painting, etc.

21. In the height of Assyrian glory, during the splendid reigns of Sargon, Sennacherib, and Sardanapalus, architecture, painting, and sculpture had reached a very high degree of perfection. Carving in ivory, modelling, and metallurgy, with kindred arts, had also made great progress. The sculptured panellings which

FROM THE PALACE OF SENNACHERIB, KOYUNJIK (NINEVEH).

have been found, representing single figures, of kings and deities, and battle and hunting scenes, evince great delicacy, taste, and skill, and a far greater accuracy in expression than anything found in Egyptian art. The walls of the palaces were adorned with alabaster work most brilliantly painted, and the ceilings were gilded and inlaid with ivory.

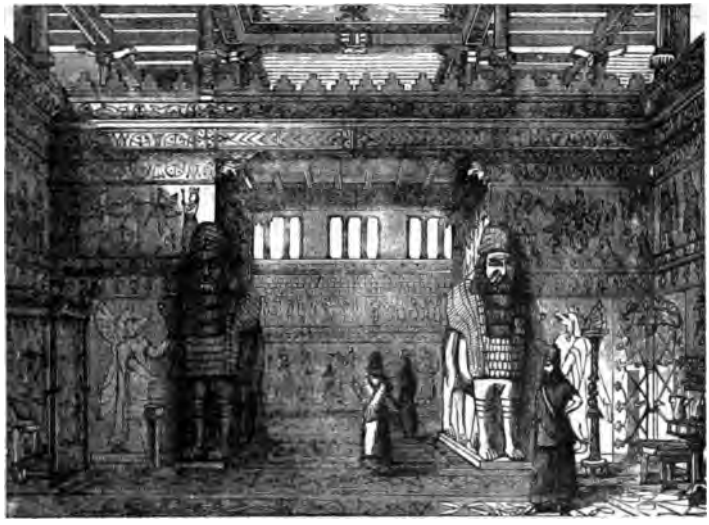
Manufactures.

22. They understood the manufacture of transparent glass, constructed aqueducts, and knew the use of the arch and the application of the lever and other mechanical powers. The records of great kings were ingeniously inscribed on slabs and cylinders, bricks and stones, rock

tablets, and the walls of palaces. In the preceding cut is seen a section of a pictorial record of this kind. Various branches of learning—astronomy, geography, history—were cultivated.

23. In furniture, costume, and the common ornaments of the house and the person, these people displayed a refined taste. Their chairs, tables, and other articles were of elegant designs, and often of rich materials and beautiful workmanship. In the arts of weaving and

Useful Arts.



INTERIOR OF AN ASSYRIAN PALACE (KHORSABAD),
Showing colossal statues of winged lions with human heads, eagle-headed figures, etc., such as were objects of worship among the Assyrians.

embroidery they especially excelled; and the Assyrian textile fabrics—in linen, cotton, and silk, were in high repute. Their pottery—vases, cups, utensils, etc.—showed great beauty of form. Many of them were afterwards copied by the Greeks.

24. They practiced agriculture with peculiar skill, and by careful irrigation raised large crops of sesame, millet, and wheat. The date palm was cultivated in all parts of Mesopotamia. The vine, fig, and olive were

Agriculture.

common plants, as were also the indigo and the sugar-cane. Herodotus says that they made all the oil they used from the sesame-plant, while the fruit of the palm supplied them with bread, wine, and sweet sirup. They reared the camel and the common domestic animals, including oxen and sheep. They were great lovers of the chase, and their hunting-dogs were very famous.* In short, what remains of their civilization proves them to have been a refined, ingenious, and highly gifted people, by whom the arts of comfort and luxury were carried to a high degree of advancement.†

25. They were also a very religious people, their whole life, in every phase, social and political, being governed by the dictates of a remarkable religious system, abounding in rites and ceremonies. Their deities were numerous and variously represented. The Supreme Being was worshiped under several different forms and symbols. The monuments and ruined palaces contain many strange figures, as winged bulls and horses, men with the heads of various animals, and animals with human heads. A winged human figure with the head of a hawk or an eagle is very common among the bas-reliefs and sculptures. All these figures doubtless symbolized prominent religious ideas and beliefs. Among the Babylonians, Baal, or Bel, was the chief deity; while Asshur, the spiritual personification of the city of that name, was the supreme god of the Assyrians.‡

Religion.

* Among the curious objects excavated from the ruins, models of favorite dogs are very numerous. Of them there are many specimens in the British Museum, obtained from the palace of Esarhaddon, at Nineveh.

† Herodotus thus describes the costume of the Babylonians of his time: "Their dress is a linen tunic, reaching to the feet, and above it another tunic made of wool, besides which they have a short white cloak thrown around them, and shoes of a peculiar fashion, not unlike those worn by the Bœotians. They have long hair, wear turbans on their heads, and anoint their whole body with perfumes."

‡ Below these supreme divinities came the Sun-god, the Moon-god, and the Air-god; and after these were arranged "the fifty great gods," and then the three hundred spirits of heaven and the six hundred spirits of earth, besides many local deities.

Review Outline.

I. CHALDEAN, or FIRST BABYLONIAN MONARCHY.

Babylon (2200 B.C.), Accad, Erech, Calneh; lists of Berosus; Chaldean Dynasty (2000–1543 B.C.); Arabian Dynasty (to 1298 B.C.); dynasty of forty-five kings (to 772 B.C.); reign of Pul (to 747 B.C., era of Nabonassar).

II. LATER BABYLONIAN MONARCHY.

Babylon subject to Assyria (680 B.C.); splendid reigns of Nabopolassar and Nebuchadnezzar; conquest of Judah and destruction of Jerusalem; Israelites carried captives to Babylon; conquest of Tyre; time of Babylon's greatest splendor. Nabonadius and Belshazzar; taking of Babylon by Cyrus (538 B.C.).

III. ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

Three Periods:

(1) Previous to the Conquest of Babylon (1250 B.C.?)

Reign of Shalmaneser I., a great conqueror, the builder of Calah. Legendary history of Ninus and Semiramis. [See note, page 31.]

(2) From the Conquest of Babylon to 745 B.C.

Tiglath-pile'ser I., a great conqueror; capital, Calah, a splendid city. Conquests in Armenia, Syria, Palestine, and Phenicia. Babylon independent under Nabonassar.

(3) From 745 B.C. to the Fall of Nineveh.

Brilliant reigns of Tiglath-pileser II., Shalmaneser IV., and Sargon; great conquests (745–705 B.C.). Taking of Samaria (721 B.C.). Building of palace of Khorsabad. Sennacherib; expedition against Judah; miraculous destruction of the Assyrian army. Esarhaddon, reigned at Nineveh and Babylon. Asshur-bani-pal (Sardanapalus), conqueror, and patron of the arts. Attacks by the Scythians and Medes. Saracus, or Sardanapalus II; taking of Nineveh (625 B.C.).

SECTION II.

THE MEDIAN MONARCHY.

26. Media was situated to the south of the Caspian Sea, forming a part of the great plateau region of Iran, now Persia. The early history of the Medes is wrapped in obscurity. They come into notice in the ninth century B.C., when they were brought into subjection to the Assyrian Empire (830 B.C.). About a century later, Sargon occupied a part of their territory, into which he carried the Israelite captives. In the middle of the seventh century (650 B.C.), the great Median monarchy makes its appearance on the field of history, though the Greek historians relate many events of a previous date.

Situation.

Early history.

27. The Medes invaded Assyria a few years after this date, but they were signally defeated in an attack on Nineveh (633 B.C.). For a short time they were occupied in resisting the Scythians, who made an inroad into their country; and, when freed from that danger, they renewed their attack on Nineveh, which they captured and destroyed (625 B.C.). Cyaxares, their monarch at that time, extended his conquests, penetrating into Asia Minor, and carrying on war against the Lydians. He is regarded by some as the founder of the Median monarchy. The reign of his son and successor, As-ty'a-ges, was peaceful. He made alliances with Lydia and Babylon, and his daughter was married to a Persian prince. She gave birth to Cyrus, afterward called the Great. Cyrus, being bold and aspiring, put himself at the head of the Persian tribes, and marching with a large army into Media, deposed Astyages, his grandfather, and uniting the Median and Persian dominions under himself as king, laid the foundation of the great Persian Empire (558 B.C.).

Destruction of Nineveh.

Cyrus the Great.

28. Civilization. Among the Medes were many people of

Turanian and Semitic origin. Their architecture was devoid of artistic beauty, but possessed a certain barbaric grandeur. The royal palace at Ecbat'ana, their capital, was constructed of wood plated with gold and silver. In the early times they were a simple, hardy people; but after the conquest of Nineveh they adopted the luxurious habits of the Assyrians, so that the court of Astyages resembled that of Sardanapalus. Their religion was chiefly that of Zo-ro-as'ter, the great spiritual teacher of the nations of Iran, whose doctrines are contained in the sacred books called Zend-Avesta.* The magi, a priesthood claiming supernatural powers, exerted a great influence over the people.

Art

Habits.

Religion.

SECTION III.

Kingdoms in Asia Minor.

29. Several powerful monarchies existed in Asia Minor prior to the time of Cyrus the Great, the chief of which were Phrygia, Cilicia, and Lydia. The Phrygians were a brave but coarse and brutal people, and very fond of war. Their capital was Gor-di-e'um, and Midas was the most noted of their monarchs. Phrygia was conquered by the Lydians in the sixth century (560 B.C.).

Phrygians.

30. Cilicia was early overrun by the Assyrians, but existed as a tributary kingdom. Tarsus was founded, it is said, by Sennacherib, and Sardanapalus married a Cilician princess. This kingdom was enabled to resist the assaults of the Lydian monarchs, and maintained its independence during the reign of Cyrus, but was afterward annexed to the Persian Empire.

Cilicia.

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* The period at which Zoroaster, or Zarathustra, lived is not known. It was probably before 1200 B.C. [See Persia.]

31. Lydian Monarchy. Lydia was situated in the western part of Asia Minor, and was especially noted for its fruitful soil and great mineral wealth. Its chief river, the Pac-to'lus, abounded in gold, which was also found in the neighboring mines. Hence the Lydians soon became corrupted by luxury and vicious indulgences. The Lydian kingdom is supposed to have existed in Asia Minor from a very ancient period, but its early history is fabulous and unreliable. For about two centuries this monarchy occupied a prominent position in the history of western Asia, and when Cy-ax'a-res the Mede overran this part of the country, he was checked in his career of conquest by King Alyattes (*ā-le-at'tēz*); and after a war of six years, in which he was often defeated by the Lydians, Cyaxares retired beyond the Ha'lys, the boundary of the Lydian kingdom at that time.

ANCIENT WARRIOR.

Alyattes.

32. This war between the Lydians and Medes is said to have been terminated in a singular way.* Their two great armies had come to an engagement (610 B.C., or, according to some writers, 584 B.C.), when, in the midst of the battle, a total eclipse of the sun occurred,

Treaty of Peace.

* "On the refusal of Alyattes to give up his suppliants, when Cyaxares sent to demand them of him, war broke out between the Lydians and the Medes, and continued for five years, with various success. In the course of it, the Medes gained many victories over the Lydians, and the Lydians also gained many victories over the Medes. Beside their other battles there was one night engagement. As, however, the balance had not inclined in favor of either nation, another combat took

which so alarmed the soldiers that they immediately retired from the conflict. The two monarchs thereupon concluded not only a peace, but a firm treaty of alliance with each other; and peace continued to subsist between these two powers until the time of Cyrus, about half a century afterward.

33. Alyattes is said to have reigned about forty years after the close of this war, and to have constructed a vast monument, scarcely inferior to the great pyramids of Egypt. Its base was formed of immense blocks of stone, the structure above being a huge mound of earth. This mound has been explored in modern times, and a chamber found within, formed of solid blocks of marble; but it was evident that it had been rifled of its contents long before. It was without doubt the tomb of Alyattes.

Tomb of Alyattes.

34. Alyattes was succeeded (about 568 B.C.) by his son Crœsus (*kre'sus*), noted for his immense wealth, being by far the richest monarch of his time. He is also distinguished as the last monarch of Lydia; for, having made war upon Cyrus, the king of Persia, he was entirely defeated; and his capital, Sardis, being taken by the enemy, he was made a prisoner, and condemned by Cyrus to be burnt alive upon a funeral pyre, but was afterward released. Thus, within a very few weeks, from being a powerful and prosperous monarch, ruler over thirteen nations, he was reduced to the condition of a captive and a beggar, dependent upon the will of a despot whose anger he had provoked. It was in this way that Lydia became a province of the Persian Empire (554 B.C.).

Crœsus.

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place in the sixth year, in the course of which, just as the battle was growing warm, day was on a sudden changed into night. This event had been foretold by Thales, the Milesian, who forewarned the Ionians of it, fixing for it the very year in which it actually took place. The Medes and Lydians, when they observed the change, ceased fighting, and were alike anxious to have terms of peace agreed on."—*Rawlinson's Herodotus.*

Chronological Synopsis of Contemporaneous Events.

B.C.	Chaldean and Babylonian Monarchies.	Assyrian Empire.	Median and Minor Monarchies.
2200	Babylon founded.		
2000	Chaldean Dynasty.	*First Period of Assyrian History.* Shalmaneser I.	
1543	Arabian Dynasty.		
1298			
1250	Babylonia and Assyria united.	Conquest of Babylon by Tiglath-pileser I.	
1250	Assyrian Dynasty.		Media subject to Assyria.
772			
747	Babylon independent, under Nabonassar.	End of reign of Pul.	
745		Tiglath-pileser II.	
721		Samaria taken by Sargon.	
705		Reign of Sennacherib.	
680			
680	Babylon subject to Assyria.	Esarhaddon begins to reign.	
669		Asshur-bani-pal.	
650			Media rises to importance.
625	Nabopolassar.	Nineveh taken by the Medes—end of the Assyrian Empire.	Reign of Cyaxares the Mede.
610			War between the Medes and Lydians.
586	Destruction of Jerusalem and Tyre by Nebuchadnezzar.		
585			
568			Crœsus begins to reign in Lydia.
560			Phrygia conquered by the Lydians.
558			Union of the Medes and Persians under Cyrus
554			Conquest of Lydia by Cyrus.
538	Babylon taken by Cyrus.		

SECTION IV.

THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS.

35. Egypt is certainly one of the oldest of nations. Its monuments,—among which are the pyramids,—the ruins of its vast and splendid temples, its obelisks and sphinxes, and the other remains of its peculiar civilization, are the most interesting objects of antiquity. The origin of the ancient Egyptians is unknown; but they were of the Caucasian race, and probably related to the oldest races of central Asia. By ethnologists they are classed among the Hamites, or descendants of Ham; but they differed essentially from the tribes who lived to the westward of the Nile, as well as from other African races.*

Origin.

36. The early history of Egypt is involved in fable, and but little reliance can be placed on any system of Egyptian chronology. In the time of the Greek historian Herodotus, the priests claimed for the country an antiquity of more than 11,000 years. In the third century B.C., Man'e-tho, an Egyptian priest, compiled a history of his country, which he divided into thirty dynasties. This work has perished; but abstracts from it are preserved in other ancient writings, and these, with the histories written by Herodotus and Di-o-

Chronology.

Sources of its history.

* "Now, one can say without fear of contradiction, the most valuable Egyptian museum in the world is in Cairo. That which was previously carried away being, for the most part, easily accessible, proves to belong to the later rather than the earlier dynasties. Unwearied digging has enabled Mariette [a French archæologist] to reach the records of the ancient empire, and to show, what we never before suspected, that the glory of Egyptian art belongs to the age of Cheops, and only its decadence to the age of Rameses II. Not only the art, but the culture, the religion, the political organization of Egypt are carried back to the third dynasty; and Menes, the first historic king, dawns upon our knowledge, not as a primitive barbarian, but as the result of a long stage of unrecorded development. I do not hesitate to say, that since Champollion discovered the key to the hieroglyphics, no scholar has thrown such a broad and clear light upon Egyptian life and history as Mariette."—*Bayard Taylor.*

RUINS OF AN EGYPTIAN TEMPLE.*

* "As we approach Karnak (a part of Thebes), the most striking objects are two of the enormous propylons so characteristic of Egyptian architecture. They are truncated pyramids pierced with a gateway. The sides slope inward from a rectangular base, and are surmounted by a heavy cornice, on which is sculptured the symbol known to the Greeks as the *Agathodæman*, a winged sun, or scarabæus. It was the number of the propylons that gained for Thebes the Homeric epithet of 'the hundred-gated city.'"—*Manning's Land of the Pharaohs.*

do'rus, and the allusions made to Egypt in the Jewish scriptures, besides what has been gleaned in modern times from the hieroglyphic inscriptions on the monuments, and rolls of papy'rus found in the tombs, constitute our knowledge of ancient Egyptian history.* The history of the first seventeen of Manetho's dynasties, covering a period of about twelve centuries, is very obscure, for the monuments only give us a few scattered facts and dates.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

Find the Situation of: GOSHEN, HEPTANOMIS, THEBAIS, Sais, Pelusium, Gizeh, Heliopolis, Memphis, Hermopolis, Karnak, Luxor, Syene, Philæ, Mt. Sinai.

37. The first of these dynasties is supposed to have commenced about 2700 B.C.; but considerable diversity of opinion prevails on this point.

Early dynasties.

In the early portion of this period, Egyptian civilization was in an advanced state, and Memphis was a great and flourishing city. The fourth dynasty is especially noted for the erection of many of the pyramids (2500 B.C.). One of the most noted events of its early history was the invasion of the country by a warlike race, who conquered the nation and ruled over it for several centuries. These invaders are known in

*The physical features of the Egyptians and the affinities of their language seem to indicate a similarity of origin to that of the European races. One writer remarks: "The further you go back, the more European the faces found depicted on the monuments become;" and he illustrates this by two portraits discovered in a tomb of the third dynasty, and hence older than the pyramids. He also points out many Egyptian words that are almost identical in Egyptian, Sanskrit, English,

history as the *Hyk'sos*, or Shepherd Kings (from 1900 to 1525 B.C.).* They ruled in Lower Egypt as military despots, and very much oppressed the native people. It was probably during the reign of one of these that Joseph became the chief minister, and that Jacob and his family were allowed to settle in the land of Goshen.† It is supposed that the Israelites remained in Egypt a little more than two centuries (215 years), the Exodus taking place during the seventeenth dynasty (1652 B.C.), before the Shepherds had been expelled.

Hyksos.

Exodus.

38. The three centuries following the expulsion of the Shepherd Kings, from the eighteenth to the twentieth dynasty, may be considered the most splendid period of Egyptian history (1525 to 1200 B C.). Some of the greatest monarchs belong to this period. The most renowned were Thoth'mēs III., who made many conquests, and constructed magnificent temples at Thebes, Memphis, and other places; Thothmes IV., who caused the great Sphinx to be constructed; and Seti, son of Rame'ses I., who built the Great Hall of Karnak, and constructed for himself the most beautiful of all the royal tombs. According to Manetho, he reigned upward of fifty years. This king, called Sesos'tris by the Greeks, made

Thothmes.

German, etc. Thus the English word *mother* is, in Egyptian, *mut;* in Sanskrit, *mâtar;* in Greek, *mēter;* in Latin, *mater;* in German, *mutter;* and in Gaelic, *mathair.*—*See* "*Nile Gleanings,*" *by Villiers Stuart* (1879).

* "The Theban monarchs of the thirteenth dynasty, less warlike or less fortunate than their predecessors, found themselves unable to resist the terrible 'Shepherds,' and quitting their capital, fled into Ethiopia, while the invaders wreaked their vengeance on the memorials of the Sesortasens" [monarchs of the twelfth dynasty]. —*Rawlinson's Ancient History.*

† "Since the Pharaoh of Joseph must have been a powerful ruler and held Lower Egypt, there can be no question that he was, if the dates be correct, a shepherd of the fifteenth dynasty. . . . . It seems perfectly incredible that Joseph should be the minister of a native Egyptian king."—*Smith's Dictionary of the Bible.* The hatred of Egyptians toward foreigners would have naturally prevented the appointment of Joseph to so high an office, and the settlement of the Israelites in Egypt. Under the rule of a foreign monarch, there could have been no such objection to these things.

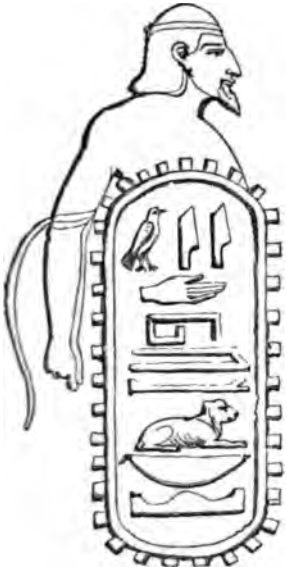
many conquests. Rameses II. was also a very great conqueror. He adorned both Egypt and Nubia with many splendid temples and other edifices. Egyptian art reached its highest development in his reign. The exploits of these monarchs are recorded in pictures and hieroglyphs on the monuments.

Rameses.

39. Under the nineteenth dynasty, Egypt attained her highest point of national power and greatness. During the next she rapidly declined, and for almost two centuries scarcely undertook a single important enterprise. The predominant influence of the priests was a marked feature of this period, during a part of which the priestly dynasty of Tanites held sway. She'shonk, called Shi'shak in the Bible (I. Kings xiv. 25), succeeded the priestly line, or "High Priests of Amun," as they called themselves, and brought about a partial revival of Egyptian glory (993 B.C.).

Decline of Egypt.

Sheshonk.



CARTOUCHE OF A KING, supposed to be Rehoboam.*

40. This monarch invaded Judah, received the submission of Rehobo'am, and plundered Jerusalem. There were afterward several other kings of the same name. The twenty-fifth dynasty was founded by Sa-ba'co, an Ethiopian, who conquered Egypt. This is the So of Scripture, who made a treaty with Hoshea

Sabaco.

* In the palace temple of Karnak, Shishak is represented in a large bas-relief dragging captive kings in triumph. Each country or city is personified, and its name written in an oval. One of the figures has an inscription which means "Kingdom of Judah." This is the figure represented in the cut.

(724 B.C.), and who came in conflict with Sargon, the Assyrian monarch. Tir-ha'kah (or Teh'rak), of this dynasty, was the greatest of the Ethiopian kings of Egypt. He contended successfully with Assyria, and came to the assistance of the Jewish king Hezekiah against Sennacherib, who met with so terrible an overthrow. He was, however, finally defeated, and Egypt was broken up into petty kingdoms subject to Assyria.

41. Psam-met'i-chus threw off the Assyrian yoke, and founded the twenty-sixth dynasty. By means of Greek mercenaries he greatly increased his power, though he in this way offended the Egyptian military class. He encouraged art and constructed several great works. Necho, or Ne-ka'o, his son and successor, gave great attention to maritime enterprises. He built fleets on the Red and Mediterranean seas, undertook to reopen the canal between the Red Sea and the Nile which had been cut by Rameses II., and also directed the circumnavigation of Africa.* After defeating Josiah, king of Judah, he was himself defeated by Nebuchadnezzar (605 B.C.).

Psammetichus.

Necho.

42. Ama'sis, the fifth king of this dynasty, had a long and prosperous reign. He constructed many fine buildings, and left numerous monuments in different parts of the country. He encouraged Greek merchants to settle in Egypt, and in order to protect his kingdom against the growing power of Persia, made an alliance with Crœsus of Lydia. His reign terminated just as Camby'ses, the Persian king, was about to invade the country. His son and successor, Psam-men'i-tus, after a reign of six months, encountered the Persian host near

Amasis.

Psammenitus.

* "Necho next fitted out some ships, in order to discover if Africa was circumnavigable; for which purpose he engaged the services of certain Phœnician mariners; and he has the honor of having been the first to ascertain the peninsular form of that continent, about twenty-one centuries before Bartolomeo Diaz and *Vasco da Gama.*"—*Rawlinson.*

Pelusium, and was defeated (525 B.C.). Thus Egypt came under the power of Cambyses, who treated the people with great cruelty.

43. During the remaining dynasties, extending over nearly two centuries from the battle of Pelusium, Egypt was engaged in a constant struggle with the Persians for its independence, which it often regained, but as often lost. In these efforts, it received considerable assistance from the Greeks. Since its final conquest by the Persians (346 B.C.), the prophecy of Ezekiel, that "there shall be no more a prince of the land of Egypt," has been literally fulfilled, for not one native ruler has ever occupied the throne for a period of more than 2000 years. The subsequent history of this country will, therefore, be given in connection with that of the nations to whom it has successively belonged.

Subsequent history.

EGYPTIAN TOPOGRAPHY AND CIVILIZATION.

44. Egypt, far back in the early ages, became a populous country, because of its extraordinary fertility, due to the annual inundations of the Nile, caused by the rains that fall on the equatorial highlands. In fact, this region may be geographically described as the valley of that river; and by some it has been called the "gift of the Nile." Its most ancient name was Chemi (*ka'me*), the Black Country, on account of the character of the soil. It yielded in great abundance immense crops of *dhowna*, a kind of maize, and other cereals; and thus the granaries of Egypt were able to supply food to all the surrounding nations in times of famine. The date-palm grew spontaneously. The Egyptian portion of the valley extended about five hundred miles from north to south, being bounded on the west by a rocky ridge sloping into the Great Desert, and on the east by low ranges descending to the Red Sea.

Soil.

Productions.

45. It *was anciently divided into Upper, Middle,* and

Lower Egypt. Upper Egypt, or the Theb'a-is, as it was often called, included the narrow valley in the extreme southern part. Its capital was Thebes, which, in the time of its splendor, is said to have covered twenty-three miles, and to have had one hundred gates. On its site are the villages of Luxor and Karnak, where the ruins of splendid temples, colossal statues, obelisks,

Divisions.

Upper Egypt.

MEMNONIAN STATUES, NEAR THEBES.

and sphinxes still bear witness to the grandeur of this famous city. Near Thebes are the two colossal sitting figures, one of which is known as the statue of Memnon, which is said to have emitted a musical sound at the rising of the sun.* Originally, there was an avenue of eighteen such statues.

* The height of each of these statues is forty-seven feet, and they rest on pedestals about twelve feet high. The vocal Memnon is the statue of an Egyptian king (Amen'ophis). The sound emitted by this figure is said to have resembled the twanging of a harp-string. These statues were constructed more than 3000 years ago.

The most flourishing period of Thebes was during the eighteenth dynasty. It was pillaged by Cambyses, who carried off from it an immense treasure.

46. Middle Egypt, or Heptan'omis, as it was called on account of its seven districts, embraced the wider portion of the Nile basin below the Thebais. Its capital was Memphis, the city of the Pharaohs who received and protected the Israelites. This district contains the finest of the pyramids, which are situated on the west side of the Nile, extending a distance of about seventy miles. The first, or Great Pyramid, at Gizeh (*ghe'za*), is the most remarkable. It is said that 100,000 men were employed during thirty years in its construction. Lower Egypt, which consisted of the Delta of the Nile, was very fertile and populous. Sais was its chief city. [See Map, page 47.]

Middle Egypt.

Lower Egypt.

47. The power of the Pharaoh, or king, was absolute, except that he was more or less under the influence of the priests; and, at some periods of the history, was completely under their control.* Women were not entirely debarred from occupying the throne, nor even from the priesthood. The nation was divided into *nomes*, each of which had its governor (*nomarch*). The people consisted of many classes, but there was no fixed caste, as has been supposed.† Many occupations were hereditary; but the educational system was such that any one could by superior talent rise to eminence. Still the evils of class distinction were almost equal to those of caste. Shepherds and herdsmen, particularly swineherds, were held in great abomination. All handicrafts were despised by the upper classes, whose occupations were priestly, civil, or military, or such as required scientific knowledge. Even sculp-

Political system.

Social system.

* The growing influence of the priests, as Rawlinson remarks, was shown especially in the accession to power of the priestly dynasty of *Tanites*. These styled themselves "High Priests of Ammûn," and wore priestly costume.

† "*Castes*, in the strict sense of the word, did not exist in Egypt, since a son was not absolutely compelled to follow his father's profession."—*Rawlinson.*

ture and painting were degraded arts. There were many slaves, who were generally captives taken in war.

48. The religion of the Egyptians, which was probably at first a simple worship of one God, became very complex, owing to the vast number of deities which were adopted into their system. Many of these were, doubtless, personified attributes of the Deity; but others were regarded as distinct personages, such as Osiris and Isis. The veneration in which many of the lower animals were held was a curious feature of this religion. Thus the ibis, the hawk, the dog, and the cat were considered sacred; and at Memphis the bull Apis, regarded as a symbol of Osiris, was a special object of adoration. To kill one of these sacred animals, even by accident, was to incur the penalty of death. In the temples certain *mysteries*, or secret ceremonies, were performed, to which the priests alone were admitted.

Religion.

49. The worship was either public or private, the former in the temples, the latter at the tombs. Every town had at least one temple dedicated to the chief divinity of the place, where were the images which symbolized his powers, and the sacred animal which he was supposed to animate. The religious services were only in part open to the common people. The worship at the tombs was designed to secure certain benefits for the deceased in the future state. Every tomb of the wealthy had a chapel for this purpose, but all passers-by were invited to enter and participate in the ceremonies, and to offer up prayers for the souls of the departed. The sacrifices to the gods consisted of animals and vegetables, with libations of wine and the burning of incense.

Worship.

50. The funeral was the greatest of all the social ceremonies of the Egyptians. The period of mourning sometimes lasted seventy-two days, during which the process of embalming was performed. The body was swathed in many linen bandages, and the mummy thus formed

Funeral.

was covered with pasteboard, and often inclosed in a box, sometimes in a stone sarcophagus. It was then taken to the tomb, and offerings to the deceased were placed in the chapel.* The *Book of the Dead,* containing the funeral ritual of the ancient Egyptians, is still in existence. This great care to preserve the body from decay was due to the belief that the soul would, after a long period, return to reanimate it. It is believed that some of the pyramids were, for this reason, constructed by the kings in order to afford durable protection to their mortal remains. Imprisonment for debt was not permitted; but a man could pledge to his creditors the mummies of his ancestors, and if he failed in his lifetime to redeem them, he was himself deprived of burial.

MUMMIES.

51. The Egyptians made great progress in the mechanical and industrial arts. The weaving of cotton and linen cloth, working in copper and brass, and the making of glass and pottery were among the most prominent branches of manufacture. In their agriculture the people showed very great skill. A considerable traffic was carried on with other countries; gold, ivory, ebony, skins, and slaves were brought from Ethiopia, incense from Arabia, and spices from India. In exchange for these articles

Industrial arts.

Commerce.

* The bodies of the poor were first salted, and then boiled in bitumen. Vast numbers of sacred animals, bulls, apes, dogs, cats, sheep, etc., were also embalmed. It has been estimated that more than 400,000,000 human mummies were made in Egypt. Sepulchres have been opened in which thousands of them were found deposited in rows, one on another, without coffins. Shiploads have been transported to England, and ground up for use in fertilizing the soil.

grain and cloth were the chief exports. This commerce was carried on principally by Greek and Phœnician merchants, since the Egyptians had not attained any great degree of skill in ship-building or navigation.

52. Egyptian art was intended to illustrate the religious belief of the people. Hence it was characterized by grandeur rather than beauty. Their peculiar taste seems to have been the outgrowth of their religious ideas, for the design was rather to awaken awe than to please the eye with elegant and graceful forms. This prevented any progress in art, for all inventive genius was trammeled by their strict conventional rules based upon their religious principles. Colossal statues, symbolical uncouth figures, and animals of strange ideal forms took the place of that which is natural and beautiful. The temples and sepulchers were adorned with paintings, executed in strong but not glaring colors, in the peculiar Egyptian conventional style; that is, the style in which natural variety of form is sacrificed to an ideal sameness. The pigments used were very durable and often brilliant. Music was highly cultivated, and the instruments were of considerable variety and ingenuity. Dancing was also cultivated as an art.

Fine arts.

Painting.

Music and dancing.

The Obelisk, now in the Central Park, New York, as it stood in Alexandria.

53. Architecture was the greatest of the Egyptian arts. Massiveness and grandeur were the prominent features. This people delighted in pyramids, obelisks,* and stupendous temples, with immense columns and spacious halls, adorned with colossal statues, avenues of sphinxes, and elaborate sculpture, all producing an awe-inspiring effect. The huge blocks of stone used in these structures were drawn hundreds of miles from the quarries, by the united labor of thousands of men. The pyramids are the most celebrated of these structures. There are as many as seventy standing on the left bank of the Nile, but the Great Pyramid at Gizeh is the most famous.

Architecture.

The pyramids.

54. This massive stone structure, standing near the apex of the Delta, is believed to be the largest and oldest building now in existence. Its original height was 480 feet, and its base 764 feet square, covering an area of more than 13 acres; but by the removal of the casing-stones for the building of Cairo, its height was reduced about 30 feet. Like all the other pyramids, it faces the cardinal points, and is built on strictly scientific and mathematical principles; while in its form, position, chambers, and passages, it is supposed to symbolize many important truths. Its entrance passage is about four feet high, leading downward to a subterranean chamber cut out of the solid rock. The upward

Great Pyramid.

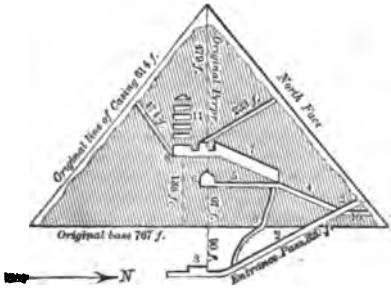
* The name *obelisk* (meaning in Greek a *spit*) was given to these tall and slender monoliths on account of their peculiar shape. They were erected in pairs at the gateways of temples, one standing on each side. They were taken from the quarries of Syene, and floated down the Nile on rafts, at the time of the inundation. Their form was dictated by a certain law of proportion; and their height varied from a little over 20 feet to 123 feet. On their sides were carved hieroglyphic records of the names and titles of the kings by whom they were erected. The one recently removed from Egypt to New York was originally placed at the gate of the temple of the sun, erected at Heliopolis by Thothmes III., where it stood for eighteen centuries, having been transported to Alexandria by the Romans in the time of Augustus. Its companion was removed with it, and at Alexandria was known as Cleopatra's Needle. This obelisk was removed to London a few years ago. An obelisk was removed from Luxor to Paris, and set up in the *Place de la Concorde*, in 1833. Several previously had been transported to Rome.

passage leads to what is called the Grand Gallery, 28 feet high and about 157 feet long, and thence to the highest and largest known room in the structure, called the King's Chamber, which contains a granite coffer, the only article of furniture in the pyramid. Below the King's Chamber is the Queen's Chamber, reached by a horizontal passage from the foot of the Grand Gallery. According to Herodotus, it was built by a king named Cheops (*ke'ops*), called also Shufu or Suphis; and the date of its erection was probably about 2400 B.C.*

Great Sphinx.

55. The Great Sphinx, an immense sculptured figure of a fabulous monster, having the head of a man and the body of a lion, stands a short distance from the pyramids of Gizeh, with its head facing the Nile. It is supposed to be even older than the Great Pyramid. Its dimensions are enormous, the length of the body being 146 feet, and the distance across the shoulders 36 feet. Between the paws, which are 50 feet apart, a small temple was constructed. This colossal figure was intended to represent one of the Egyptian deities, Horus, the Sun-god, as named in the hieroglyphics.

* No opening was discovered in this wonderful building till about 825 A.D., when, by order of a Saracen monarch, the Mohammedans broke into it, making an irregular passage (10); but in doing this they discovered the passage (2) made by the builders, the opening to which was carefully concealed from without. The diagram shows the subterranean chamber (3), the ascending passage (4), the horizontal passage (5), the queen's chamber (6), the grand gallery (7), the king's chamber (8), the passage leading to the subterranean chamber (9), and the chambers of construction (11) over the king's chamber; also ventilating tubes to the north and south. At the time of the Saracenic invasion this building was still perfect, and covered with hieroglyphics sufficient, as an Arab writer calculated, to fill 10,000 volumes. The Mohammedans took enough stone away to build all the mosques and palaces of Cairo. It originally contained nearly 7,000,000 tons of masonry, or 85 millions of cubic feet of cut stone. This would furnish enough material to construct a railway embankment 10½ feet high and 240 miles in length.



56. The Egyptians made great progress in many of the sciences. Their knowledge of astronomy was quite extensive, as is shown by the observations they made, and their mode of reckoning time; while their achievements in architecture prove that they had considerable knowledge of mathematical and mechanical science. They were also versed in medicine and surgery. They possessed great skill in many of the useful arts, including pottery, the manufacture of glass and porcelain, dyeing, and the making of linen. They were likewise skilled in the polishing and engraving of precious stones, and in metallurgy.

Science.

Useful arts.

57. The language of the ancient Egyptians was related to the Semitic, but differed from it in many respects. Its modern form is the Coptic. In ancient times there were different dialects in upper and lower Egypt. Hieroglyphics were used for monumental writing, from which a kind of running hand was formed, used for documents written on papyrus; and besides these there was the demotic, or common writing. The mode of writing was with a reed, the hieroglyphs being traced in black; but the paragraphs were commenced in red. The sculptured hieroglyphs were also embellished with colors. Much of the ancient literature has come down to us, but is generally disconnected and of little value. The discovery of the famous "Rosetta Stone" led to the deciphering of the hieroglyphic inscriptions, by means of which a flood of light has been thrown upon ancient Egyptian history.*

Language and literature.

* "All three forms of hieroglyphic writing were alike unintelligible to the Greek travelers in Egypt, but they had the priests for interpreters. This key lost, the treasures of Egyptian learning—'a library of stones and papyri in myriads of volumes'—appeared to be sealed forever, till, early in the 19th century, the key was found by Dr. Young, and successfully applied by M. Champollion. The discovery was first made from the 'Rosetta Stone,' one of the gatherings of Napoleon's expedition to Egypt, and now in the British Museum. It is a piece of black basalt, engraved with a trilingual inscription in honor of King Ptolemy V., Epiphanes, about the beginning of the second century B.C. The same text is repeated, first in hieroglyphics, secondly in enchorial [demotic] characters, lastly in

58. The pictures on the monuments and tombs give us a fair representation of the every-day life of these remarkable people. At their feasts, which were numerous among the rich, the host and hostess presided. The seats were single or double chairs, but many sat on the ground. The servants decked the guests with lotus flowers, and piled meat, fruits, cakes, and other food on small tables placed before them; while hired musicians and dancers entertained the company. They had several games, among which was a kind of draughts or chess. The rich rode in chariots, or in heavy carriages drawn by oxen. Women were treated with respect, and enjoyed a greater degree of freedom than in many of the Asiatic civilizations.

Social life.

THE ETHIOPIANS.

59. Directly south of Egypt lay the country of the Ethiopians, a nation the origin of which is lost in antiquity. Its capital, Mer′o-e, on account of its favorable situation on the upper Nile, became the emporium of Arabia, Egypt, and other nations in its vicinity; and Ethiopia grew to be one of the most powerful states of the ancient world (about 1000 B.C.). For a time it was tributary to Egypt; but (about 750 B.C.) it acquired its independence, under Sab′a-co, and in its turn subdued Egypt, which it kept under its sway about sixty years.

Meroe.

Greek; but the stone is so mutilated at the corners and one edge, that the first part of the hieroglyphic text and the last part of the Greek are lost, as well as the beginning of several lines of the enchorial. The first comparison made was that of certain names and titles, which occur frequently in the Greek text, with groups of characters similarly repeated in the corresponding parts of the enchorial. Conspicuous among these was the name of *Ptolemy*, which Dr. Young next found in the hieroglyphic text, guided by a suggestion, previously made, that the *oval rings*, or *cartouches*, constantly seen in hieroglyphic inscriptions, formed the inclosure of royal names. Hence he determined the phonetic or alphabetic value of the characters which he supposed to spell *Ptolemaios*, or *Ptolemeos*, and then those of *Berenice*. In 1822 the publication of the bilingual inscription on the obelisk at Philæ enabled Champollion to decipher the name of *Cleopatra*. The subsequent discovery of many other Greek and Roman names led him on to the deciphering of the letters of common words."—*Smith's Ancient History of the East.*

60. During the reign of Psammetichus, 240,000 Egyptians emigrated to Ethiopia, and settling there added greatly to the prosperity of the state. After subduing Egypt, Cambyses invaded Ethiopia; but his soldiers suffered terrible hardships from famine in the deserts before they reached Meroe, after the capture of which he was obliged to abandon his hopes of further conquest and return to Egypt. About five centuries later, Ethiopia was conquered by the Romans.

Invasions of Cambyses.

SECTION V.

The Phœnicians.

61. Phœnicia, bordering on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, is particularly noted for its two great cities, Sidon and Tyre, the most ancient seats of commerce mentioned in history. Each had a government of its own, and each sent colonies to different parts of the world. The most ancient were Ga'dēs (now Cadiz), in Spain (Tarshish), and Utica, in Africa. Some of the earliest settlements in Greece are said to have been made by Phœnicians. The greatest of their colonies was Car'thage, on the northern coast of Africa, founded by Dido, a Tyrian princess (878 B.C.). Ar'a-dus was also an important city of Phœnicia.

Sidon and Tyre.

Colonies.

62. Phœnicia was, in fact, a confederacy of states, or large and powerful cities, of which Sidon was the most ancient, and for some time the most flourishing; but her defeat by the Philistines of Ascalon gave the precedency to Tyre (about 1050 B.C.). This city, like the others in Phœnicia, was under the rule of kings, but the priesthood and the aristocracy had great influence. The list of the

Sidon and Tyre.

Tyrian kings from 1050 to 830 B.C. is known to us. About the close of that period, the country was invaded by the Assyrians, and lost its independence. After the fall of that empire, Phœnicia was brought under the power of the Egyptians (608 B.C.), and three years afterward was conquered by Nebuchadnezzar.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

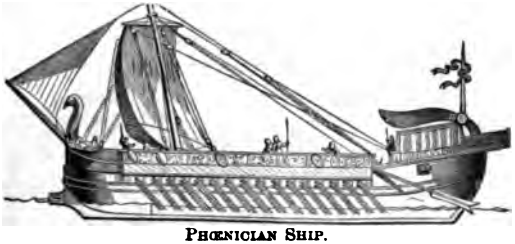
What was the situation of: PHŒNICIA? SYRIA? JUDAH? ISRAEL? EDOM? MOAB? GILEAD? GALILEE? Tyre? Sidon? Aradus? Jerusalem? Damascus? Samaria? Askelon? Gaza? Ashdod? Joppa? Beer-sheba? Byblus? Tadmor? Ezion-geber? Dead Sea? Jordan River? Orontes River? What name has been given to the whole district west of the Jordan? *Ans.* Palestine, or the Holy Land.

63. Tyre revolted from him eight years later, and maintained a successful resistance for thirteen years, when she was again brought under the Babylonian yoke, and so remained till both Tyre and Sidon were reduced by Cyrus (538 B.C.). Having revolted from the Persians (in 351 B.C.), Sidon was fired by its own inhabitants and entirely destroyed. It was, however, rebuilt. Both cities were taken by Alexander the Great (in 332 B.C.), Tyre yielding to the conqueror after a determined resistance of seven months.

64. The Phœnicians were the greatest navigators and merchants of antiquity. Keeping near the shore, and guided by

the stars, their ships visited the most remote parts of the Mediterranean Sea, and even passed the "Pillars of Hercules" (Strait of Gibraltar) into the Atlantic, probably reaching the "Land of Tin"—the peninsula of Cornwall, in Britain; also the Canaries, the Azores, and the Madeira Islands in the west, and India and Ceylon in the east. Wherever trade was profitable they extended their voyages, and they were careful to conceal from all others the course they took to the wealthy lands they reached. When Herodotus visited Tyre, he could gain no information of the source of their supply of tin and amber, although they had been selling those products to the Greeks for centuries.*

Navigation and commerce.



PHŒNICIAN SHIP.

In their desire for gain the Phœnicians did not at times scruple to commit piracy; and they sometimes, it is said, kidnapped Greek and Hebrew children and sold them for slaves. Many of the great commercial centers on the shores of the Mediterranean grew from Phœnician settlements. Thus it will be seen that the Phœnicians were masters of the commerce of the world before the Greeks became at all prominent on the field of history.

65. Their manufactures of glass and linen, of perfumes and purple dye, were sources of unbounded wealth; and the Phœnicians were universally considered to be the most skillful

*It is related that the master of one of their merchantmen bound for the "Land of Tin," perceiving himself followed by a Roman ship, which had been sent to learn the way, ran his vessel on the rocks to lead the rival craft to destruction, and on his return home his *government* indemnified him for the loss.

workmen in gold, silver, ivory, and bronze. These manufactured articles they exchanged for the rich products of distant lands. From the natives of Tarshish (southern Spain) they obtained gold, silver, iron, and lead; for this country at that time was almost a mine of wealth, silver being so plentiful that the merchants, as Aristotle relates, ballasted their ships with it. For these treasures the simple natives eagerly accepted Tyrian ornaments and glass trinkets. On the southern shores of the Baltic a similar traffic was carried on for the precious amber of that region.

Manufactures.

Traffic.

66. These people also made great progress in literature. Their alphabet was more complete than any that previously existed, for it was *phonetic;* that is, it represented the elementary sounds of spoken words, not pictures of objects. It is stated that Cadmus, a Phœnician, brought sixteen letters into Greece, thus forming a basis for the Greek alphabet. However this may be, it is certain that not only the Greek but all our modern alphabets are directly or indirectly based upon that of the Phœnicians. Thus, whatever the origin of these wonderful people, for it is impossible to say whence they came, they must be considered among the most enterprising, ingenious, and intellectual nations of antiquity.

Literature.

Alphabet.

HEAD OF BAAL.
(From a Tyrian Coin.)

67. The Phœnicians worshiped a vast multitude of gods, among whom Ba'al was pre-eminent, corresponding to the Babylonian deity of that name; and next to him was a female

deity named As-tar'te, whose emblem was the moon. The evil principle was personified by the dreaded being Moloch, to whom they sometimes sacrificed their children and other human beings. They erected temples, but chiefly selected for their places of worship mountains, glens, groves, and the banks of streams, which they deemed the favorite abodes of the gods. Fire was kept burning perpetually on their altars, and they sacrificed both men and animals. Many of their religious rites and ceremonies were dreadfully cruel and degrading,

Religion.

SYRIA.

68. Syria is the name given to a region of indefinite extent situated to the east of the Mediterranean Sea. By the Hebrews it was called A'ram. It was united under one government till the time of its complete conquest by the Persians. There were several states, but the one most generally known was Syria of Damascus, which was an important state even in the times of Abraham. In the subsequent history of the Jews it became quite prominent. King David gained a great victory over the Syrians of Damascus, and reduced their city; but during Solomon's reign it regained its independence (1000 B.C.).

Situation.

Damascus.

69. There were three kings named Ben-ha'dad, all of whom contended repeatedly with the Hebrews. Benhadad II. was murdered by the usurper Haz'a-el, who afterward gained important victories over the Israelites, ravaged their territory, and plundered Jerusalem (about 850 B.C.). His son, Benhadad III., also "oppressed Israel." At a later period, Syria was successively subdued by the Assyrians, Persians, and Macedonians. About 63 B.C., it became a Roman province, and was subsequently divided into several provinces.

Benhadad.

SECTION VI.

THE HEBREWS.

70. Palestine was situated between the Mediterranean Sea and the valley of the Jordan River, extending about 145 miles from north to south, with an average breadth of less than fifty miles. The name is a corruption of Philistia, or the country of the Philistines, those fierce idolaters with whom the Hebrews waged many wars. Their chief cities were Ash'dod, or A-zo'tus, As'ca-lon, Gath, Ga'za, and Ek'ron, all noted in sacred history. The western parts of what was called Palestine were inhabited by the Canaanites and other tribes, or nations (*seven* mentioned in the Scriptures), which were conquered by the Hebrews.

Situation.

Philistines.

Canaanites.

71. The Hebrews were a Semitic race. Abraham journeyed from Chaldea to Canaan (Palestine), where his descendants continued to dwell as a patriarchal and pastoral nation until Jacob and his sons left the country to settle in Egypt. The Jewish state properly commences with the Exodus from Egypt and the settlement again in Palestine. Of the twelve tribes of Israel, nine and a half were located to the west, and two and a half to the east, of the Jordan. Into this region they had been led by Joshua, as Moses was permitted only to catch a glimpse of the promised land. After the death of Joshua followed the period of the Judges, which lasted about five centuries. The last of the Judges was Samuel, who, when the people demanded a king, anointed Saul (1095 B.C.).

Tribes of Israel.

72. Saul was succeeded by David, during whose reign (from 1055 to 1015 B.C.) the kingdom of Israel stretched from the Mediterranean Sea to the Euphrates River, and from Syria to the Red Sea. He encouraged navigation and trade, particularly with Tyre, which

David.

led to a vast influx of the precious metals into the kingdom, and afterward made Solomon's court a scene of oriental luxury and magnificence. The reign of Solomon (1015–975 B.C.) was the most splendid period in Jewish history. He built a sumptuous palace, and caused the great temple to be constructed. Alliances were formed with the surrounding nations; an active trade with Egypt was opened; and, to facilitate his commercial enterprises, he erected Tad'mor in the desert, which afterwards became so renowned as Palmy'ra. He also built a superb navy at a port (E'zi-on-ge'ber) which he established at the northern part of the Red Sea. [See map, page 62.]

Solomon.

73. The glory of Solomon's splendid kingdom was not to continue. Already, during his life, luxury had brought its usual corruption and weakness. The purity of religion was stained by cruel and licentious rites; the people were oppressed by a burdensome taxation; and dissension and discontent prevailed. The tyranny and insolence of Re-ho-bo'am, Solomon's son and successor, completed the ruin of the kingdom, causing the revolt of the ten tribes, who followed Jer-o-bo'am, and set up a new kingdom of Israel at Shē'chem. To Rehoboam were thus left only two tribes, forming the kingdom of Judah. A desultory war was kept up between these two kingdoms during most of the reign of Jeroboam, which lasted twenty-two years.

Revolt of the Ten Tribes.

74. The territory ruled over by Jeroboam was partly beyond the Jordan. It reached from the borders of Damascus to within ten miles from Jerusalem; and in its first period contained twice as large a population as Judah. Its first capital was She'chem; the second, Tirzah; and the last, Samaria. In about 250 years nineteen monarchs reigned, the history of whom is but a sad record of wickedness and war. They deserted the purity of the former religious worship, and practiced idolatry, against which the prophets vainly denounced the judgments of Heaven. The

Israel.

kingdom was destroyed by the Assyrians, to whom the last king, Ho-she'a, surrendered Samaria, and the ten tribes were carried into captivity (721 B.C.). Their place was supplied by Babylonian settlers, from whom, with the remnant of the Jewish population, was derived the Samaritan race.

75. The kingdom of Judah lasted 135 years longer than Israel. Most of its kings were wicked and idolatrous; but, during the reign of the good king Je-hosh'a-phat (916–892 B.C.), the kingdom was in a more prosperous state than it had been since the reign of Solomon. Hezekiah's reign (726–697 B.C) is remarkable for the invasion of Sennacherib and the miraculous destruction of his army. The last king was Zed-e-ki'ah, during whose reign Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, took Jerusalem and destroyed it, sending the Jewish king in chains to Babylon, whither were also transported the wretched inhabitants (586 B.C.). The temple was razed to the ground, and for more than fifty years the holy city perished, except in the memory of the heart-broken exiles. The restoration of the Jews took place in 536 B.C., in pursuance of an edict of Cyrus, the great Persian monarch, which permitted the Jewish people in Babylon to return to Jerusalem, and to rebuild the temple, every Jew in the city being enjoined by the edict to assist in the work.

Judah.

ANTIQUE VESSELS.

76. After the edict of Cyrus, the Jews remained under the dominion of Persia till the time of Alexander; and on his death (324 B.C.), they became subject to Ptol'e-my (*tol'e-me*), one of his successors. Subsequently the kings of Egypt and Syria con-

tended for Palestine, until An-ti'o-chus the Great defeated the Egyptians, and thus became its ruler. In consequence of the oppression of one of his successors, the Jews revolted, under the renowned Judas Mac-ca-be'us, who in a succession of victories routed the Syrian armies, and entered Jerusalem in triumph (165 B.C.).

Subsequent Jewish history.

77. After his death (161 B.C.), his brothers completed the work of national deliverance, and they and their successors ruled as high-priests, until Aristobu'lus assumed the crown (106 B.C.). The second king of that name was subdued by Pompey, the Roman general, when Judea became a Roman province. The successors of Judas Maccabeus are called the Maccabees, or the As-mo-ne'an dynasty. These were followed by the dynasty founded by Herod the Great, who ruled under the Romans (37 B.C.–44 A.D.). Subsequently Judea was appended to the Roman province Syria. The revolt of the Jews led to a "war of independence," which was closed by the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus (70 A.D.) and the final dispersion of the Hebrew race.

HEBREW COSTUME.

78. The civilization of the Hebrews was not marked by any great and peculiar progress in the arts and sciences; and the world has received no impulse from their national achievements or history in this respect. Their religious institutions, spiritual ideas, and moral teachings have, however, exerted a mighty influence on modern civilization. The sacred writings of the Jews are still a treasury of inspired wisdom, the influence of which pervades the *most civilized* nations of the globe.

Hebrew civilization.

SECTION VII.

THE HINDOOS.

79. The original seat of the great Aryan race appears to have been the region lying between the northwestern boundary of India and the shores of the Caspian Sea. [See map No. II.] From this country emigrants pushed across the Indus River, and drove toward the south or reduced to servitude the native inhabitants. Of these Aryan invaders, mingling with the darker races whom they had subdued, the Hindoos are the descendants. The land was subsequently called *Ar'ya-ā-var'ta,* or the *Home of the Aryans.* The date of this invasion is uncertain, but it has been placed by some Sanskrit scholars as far back as 3100 B.C.

Aryans.

80. These invaders brought with them a religion called Brahmanism and the Sanskrit language, and also established the institution of *caste.* Of these castes the Brahmans or priests, constituted the highest, and the *Su'dras,* or conquered people—the artisans and laborers—the lowest. To these may be also added the *Pa'riahs,* or outcasts. The Sanskrit is now a dead language, but a comparison of it with other languages shows it to have been the parent of Greek, Latin, Iranian or Persian, German, Celtic, Slavonic, and most of the languages of modern Europe. The *Vedas,* or sacred books, written in this language, are believed to be as old as 2000 B.C. The ancient literature of the Hindoos includes many other interesting works, both in prose and poetry, a number of which have been translated into English and other modern languages.

Castes.

Sanskrit.

Vedas.

81. The Vedas teach the worship of one Supreme Being, an Infinite Spirit, pervading all things, and manifesting himself under three forms: Brahma, the creator; Vishnu, the preserver; and Siva, the destroyer. The doctrine of the "transmigration of souls" was a promi-

Religion.

nent feature in these religious teachings. According to this belief, the souls of all those who had not lived pure lives passed at death into the bodies of lower animals as a punishment. In the sixth century B.C., there arose a wonderful religious reformer or teacher in the person of Prince Gauta'ma, called Buddha (*bood'dah*)—the *Enlightened.* He was the founder of Buddhism, a religious system which at first was pure and spiritual, but subsequently became stained with many abuses and corrupted with idolatry and superstitious practices. It is now the religion of a large part of mankind.*

Buddhism.

82. We have no continuous authentic history of the ancient Hindoos. The first event in connection with the history of Europe that brings India into notice is the invasion of the country by the Macedonians, under their great leader, Alexander the Great (326 B.C.). After several engagements with the native princes, he was compelled to retire without making any conquests. The historians who accompanied the army wrote quite a full description of the people and their peculiarities.

History.

83. The wealth of India—its diamonds and other precious stones, pearls, silks, spices, and perfumes—made this land for many centuries an object of interest, and trade with it was eagerly cultivated. Maritime commerce with India was carried on by the Phœnicians, as it was afterward by the Italian commercial states. A great overland trade was also carried on not only by the Phœnicians but by other nations. In all other respects, however, the country and its people remained a sealed book for ages.

Wealth and trade.

* "In point of age, most other creeds are youthful compared with this venerable religion, which has in it the eternity of a universal hope, the immortality of a boundless love, an indestructible element of faith in final good, and the proudest assertion ever made of human freedom."—*Edwin Arnold.*

SECTION VIII.

THE CHINESE.

84. China is spoken of by the ancient classic writers as the land of the *Se'res.* In the Middle Ages it was called the empire of *Cathay'.* From others it received the name of *Sin, Chin,* or *China.* The latter name is supposed by some to be derived from the *Tsin* dynasty, of the third century B.C. In the ancient descriptions of this country, its rich products—raw silk, silk stuffs, fine furs, and excellent iron—are especially mentioned. The Greeks and Romans had but a very indefinite knowledge of the Chinese and their country. In the Middle Ages, it became better known, particularly through the account given by Marco Polo of his travels in Cathay.

China.

85. The Chinese historians extend their records back during fabulous periods of hundreds of thousands of years, but fail to explain the origin of the race. They describe the first settlers as nomadic emigrants from the region near the Caspian Sea, who, however, soon devoted themselves to agriculture, cultivating grain and flax, and nourishing silkworms. They established centers of trade, and began to study science, particularly astronomy. They had a kind of hieroglyphic writing. The natives could make but little resistance to the "black-haired race," so much superior to themselves in intelligence and vigor, and hence were driven into the less habitable parts of the country.

Origin.

86. All the early history of the Chinese is very obscure, but, about the twenty-fourth century B.C., the mist begins to rise, and we have a continuous history of dynasties and kings. In the tenth century, the formidable Tartars commenced their incursions, and down to modern times continued to harass the empire. In the sixth century (551 B.C.), the wise teacher

History.

Tartars.

Confucius was born, who devoted his long life to the endeavor to instill into the minds of the people pure principles of virtue and religion. Not until after his death, however, were his precepts respected; they were then erected into a religious system known as *Confucianism.*

Confucius.

87. Lao-tse (*low-tsä'*) was contemporary with Confucius, and he also founded a religious system, called *Taouism,* which still extensively prevails. A wise and powerful monarch, called in the Chinese history "the first universal emperor," in the third century B.C., gained several great victories over the Tartars, and to prevent their incursions in the future, planned the construction of the "Great Wall," but died before it was completed (210 B.C.). Buddhism was introduced from India about 65 A.D., and now extensively prevails.

Taouism.

Great wall.

CHINESE CIVILIZATION.

88. The character, institutions, and customs of the Chinese have undergone but little change since the earliest times. They have ever been jealous of foreigners, fearful of innovations, and attached to their own modes in everything. Their government is an absolute monarchy; but the emperor is regarded as the father of his people, and as being specially the son of Heaven, and the mediator between Heaven and all who belong to the Chinese nation. Prayers and sacrifices for the people are offered by him at stated times. The punishments inflicted upon criminals are severe and cruel. The patriarchal system prevails in social life, obedience to the head of the family being sternly enforced. Education receives a great deal of attention, and is the passport to all offices, to which every one is eligible.

Manners and customs.

Government.

Education.

89. The Chinese language is one of a small class of Asiatic languages which are usually described as *monosyllabic.* It has no alphabet, the characters being chiefly symbols of the

objects which they are designed to denote. There are at least 30,000 characters in the language, represented to the ear by about 500 syllabic sounds. The ancient literature embraces the works compiled by Confucius, five in number, among which is the *Book of History*, which treats of a period extending from the twenty-fourth century to 721 B.C. These, with four other works, constitute the famous *classics*, with which every educated Chinaman must be familiar. The art of printing was known to the Chinese several centuries before it was invented in Europe.*

Language and literature.

90. The native religions of the Chinese are those founded by Confucius and Lao-tse. The former is rather of a moral and philosophical character; the latter, of a spiritual nature. The educated, as a general thing, profess Confucianism; the middle and lower orders, Taouism or Buddhism. Great toleration in religion prevails. The saying is common: "Religions are many; reason is one; we are all brothers." Multitudes of superstitious beliefs and ceremonies have disfigured the ancient religions as now professed and practiced by the people.

Religion.

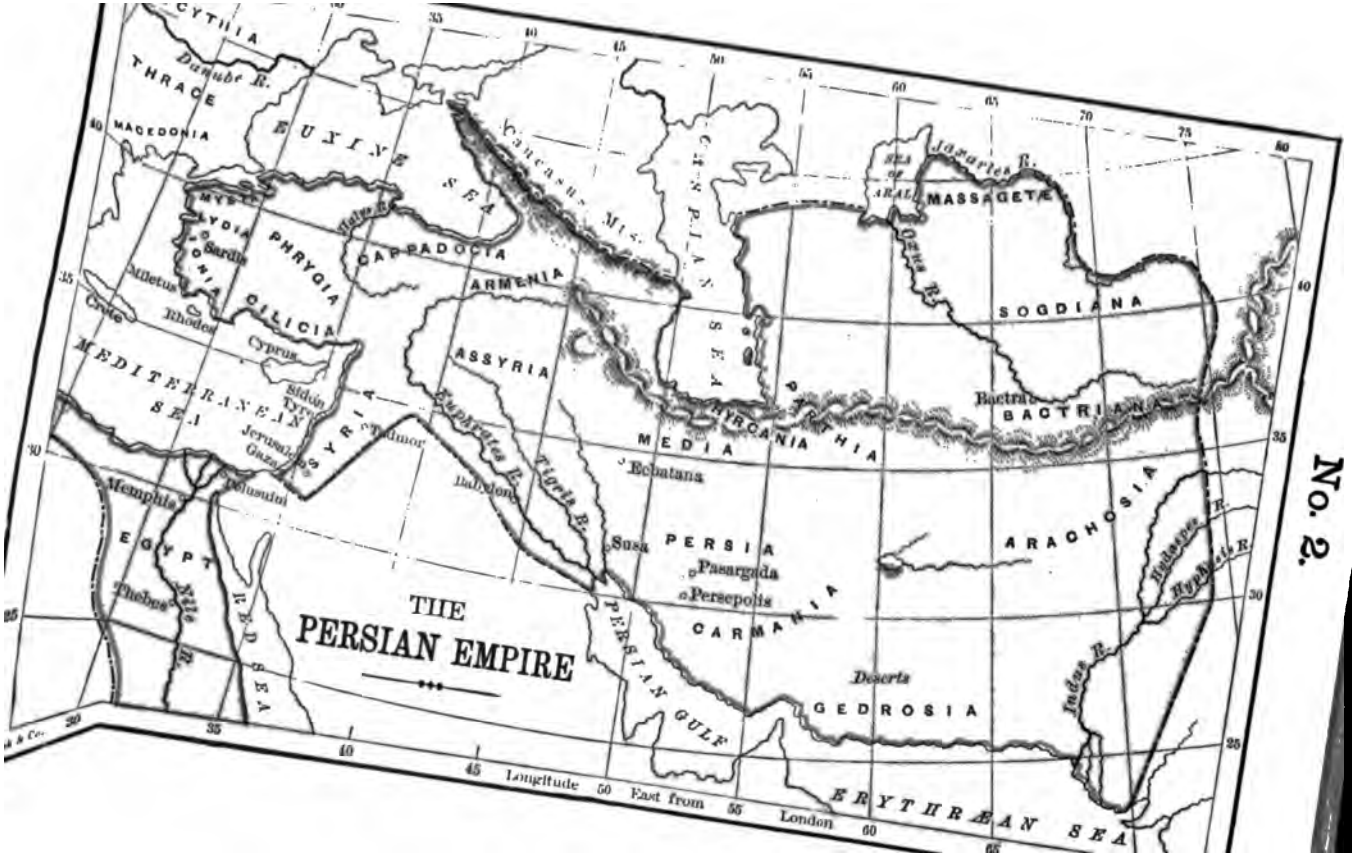
SECTION IX.

THE PERSIANS.

91. The Persians were an Aryan race who migrated to the lofty plain of Iran from the region east of the Caspian Sea. Achæmenes (*a-kem'e-nēz*) seems to have been the founder of the monarchy about a century before the time of Cyrus. There were many tribes, of which the Pa-sar'ga-dæ were the most prominent, forming a

Origin.

* The modern literature of China is very extensive. The royal library contains *at least* 100,000 volumes, its catalogue alone filling 122 volumes.


THE
PERSIAN EMPIRE
No. 2.
SCYTHIA
THRACE
MACEDONIA
Danube R.
EUXINE SEA
Caucasus Mts.
CASPIAN SEA
SEA of ARAL
Jaxartes R.
MASSAGETÆ
Oxus R.
SOGDIANA
Bactra
BACTRIANA
MYSIA
LYDIA
IONIA
Sardis
PHRYGIA
Halys R.
CAPPADOCIA
ARMENIA
Miletus
Crete
Rhodes
Cyprus
CILICIA
ASSYRIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Sidon
Tyre
Jerusalem
Gaza
SYRIA
Palmyra
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Babylon
Ecbatana
MEDIA
HYRCANIA
PARTHIA
Memphis
Pelusium
EGYPT
Thebes
Nile R.
RED SEA
Susa
PERSIA
Pasargada
Persepolis
CARMANIA
PERSIAN GULF
Deserts
GEDROSIA
ARACHOSIA
Hydaspes R.
Hydraotis R.
Indus R.
ERYTHRÆAN SEA
Longitude East from London
30
35
40
45
50
55
60
65
70
75
80

kind of nobility. The Persians, before Cyrus, were subject to the Median monarchy; but that ambitious prince being kept as a sort of hostage at Ecbatana, and seeing that the luxury and effeminacy of the Medes had undermined their strength, determined to throw off the Median yoke. This he accomplished in spite of all the efforts which Astyages made to repress the revolt. The conquest of Media by Cyrus and the capture of Astyages opened the way for greater changes.

Cyrus.

92. By a wonderfully rapid series of conquests Cyrus then made himself master of Lydia, the Asiatic Greeks, Babylon, and the nations of the remoter East—Hyrca'nia, Par'thia, Bac'tria, Sog-di-a'na, etc. [See map No. II.] Babylon, as already related, fell before his conquering arms in 538 B.C. All these countries were subdued by this extraordinary man in less than thirty years (558–529 B.C.). The circumstances of his death are variously related. Herodotus says he was killed in an expedition against the Massagetæ (*mas-saj'e-te*), a barbarous tribe living east of the Caspian Sea.* He was succeeded by his son Camby'ses.

Conquests of Cyrus.

Death.

* The account given by Herodotus is as follows: "Tomyris, queen of the Massagetæ, when she found that Cyrus paid no heed to her advice, collected all the forces of her kingdom and gave him battle. Of all the combats in which the barbarians have engaged among themselves, I reckon this to have been the fiercest. The following, as I understand, was the manner of it: First, the two armies stood apart and shot their arrows at each other; then, when their quivers were empty, they closed and fought hand to hand with lances and daggers; and thus they continued fighting for a length of time, neither choosing to give ground. At length the Massagetæ prevailed. The greater part of the army of the Persians was destroyed, and Cyrus himself fell, after reigning nine-and-twenty years. Search was made among the slain, by order of the queen, for the body of Cyrus; and when it was found, she took a skin, and, filling it with human blood, she dipped the head of Cyrus in the gore, saying, as she thus insulted the corse, 'I live, and have conquered thee in fight; and yet by thee am I ruined, for thou tookest my son with guile: but thus I make good my threat, and give thee thy fill of blood.'" According to Xenophon, Cyrus died peacefully in his bed. Ctesias says he was mortally wounded in a battle with Derbices, and died in his camp a short time afterward. There seems to be little reason to doubt that he died in a violent manner, but it is uncertain what enemy he was *contending against* at the time.

93. Cambyses was a warlike prince, as well as cruel and despotic. He caused his brother Smerdis, sometimes called Bardius, to be put to death on account of jealousy, because Cyrus had left to him the government of several important provinces. He compelled the submission of Phœnicia and Cyprus, the great naval powers of western Asia, and then invaded Africa (525 B.C.). He defeated Psammenitus, took the city of Memphis, conquered the Libyan tribes, and planned the conquest of Carthage, but the Phœnician soldiers in his army refused to attack their own colony. The army which he sent to capture the temple of Ammon, situated in an oasis of the desert (Si-wah′), perished in a simoom; and the march of his own army against Ethiopia was arrested in the Nubian desert by drought and famine.

Cambyses.

94. On his return to Egypt he found it in a state of revolt, to repress which he was guilty of the wildest atrocities, compelling the Egyptian king to take poison, killing the sacred animals, and otherwise offending the religious prejudices of the people. In the mean time a revolution took place at the Persian capital. A Magian personated the murdered Smerdis, and seized the throne, being supported by the Magian order, the most powerful in Persia. Cambyses on his way homeward died, some say by suicide, others in consequence of a wound which he accidentally inflicted upon himself while mounting his horse (522 B.C.).*

Revolt of Egypt.

Smerdis.

Death of Cambyses.

95. Smerdis, the impostor, on the discovery of the fraud, was quickly deposed by the Persian nobles, who elected Dari′us I., called Hys-tas′pes, king. He was the greatest of the

* "The Magian revolution was religious rather than political. The subject is still to some extent obscure; but it seems certain that Magianism and Zoroastrianism were at this time two distinct and opposed systems. The pretender was a Magus, born in the eastern part of Persia; and the object of the revolution was to make Magianism the state religion. Its ill success re-established the pure religion of *Zoroaster.*"—*Rawlinson.*

Persian monarchs, being both a conqueror and a statesman. He speedily put down the rebellions which, on his accession, had broken out in all parts, and then perfected the organization of the empire, dividing it into twenty provinces, over which he placed governors, or *satraps*, as they were called by the Persians. He made Susa his capital in the spring, Ecbatana in summer, and Babylon in the winter.

Darius I.

96. Several great military expeditions were then undertaken. The first was against western India, near the head-waters of the Indus, where he made conquest of a rich gold tract that added greatly to the revenues of the empire. The next was against the barbarous Scythian nations dwelling on the vast plains lying north of the Euxine. With an immense army he crossed the Bos'po-rus by means of a bridge of boats, and advanced against these people, who fled at his approach. This expedition seems to have been undertaken more for the purpose of overawing the people than to make conquests, and after ravaging the country he returned to Persia, leaving a force to subdue Thrace.

97. The Greek colonies of Asia Minor, provoked by the tyranny of the Persians, planned a revolt, and expelled or put to death their governors. Sardis, the capital of the *satrapy*, was taken and burned; but the rebellious states, after several battles, were compelled to surrender, and were punished with great severity. Athens, having aided and abetted the insurrection, brought upon herself and all Greece the vengeance of the Persian despot, who sent two great expeditions to conquer the country. These were unsuccessful. In the second of them, the Persian army, numbering more than 100,000 men, was defeated by the Greeks on the plains of Marathon, not far from Athens. This was the first signal defeat which the Persians had ever encountered. While organizing a third expedition, on a still larger scale, Darius died (485 B.C.).*

Revolt of the Greek colonies.

* "Darius probably died at Susa; *but he was buried in the vicinity of Persepolis.*

98. Xerxes I. (*zerx'ēz*), the son and successor of Darius, renewed the attempt to subdue the Grecian states, and for the purpose collected a vast army and fleet; but he met with a disastrous defeat both by land and sea. After a reign of twenty years,* he transmitted the enterprise to his son, Ar-tax-erx'es I., who was at last compelled to make peace with the Greeks, after the war had continued about fifty years (449 B.C.). The subsequent history of Persia is of little importance, except as it is connected with that of the Greeks. The last king was Darius III., called Cod-o-man'nus, who was subdued by Alexander the Great (329 B.C.). Persia then became a part of the Macedonian Empire, having lasted a little over two centuries.

Xerxes I.

Artaxerxes I.

Darius III.

PERSIAN WAR-CHARIOT.

CIVILIZATION OF THE PERSIANS.

99. Until after the reign of Cyrus the Great, the Persians were a hardy race, of simple manners and great courage in war; but they soon became soft and effeminate, like the Medes, to whom they were related. They lost their bold hardihood, and sank into a corrupt

Manners.

where he had prepared himself an elaborate rock tomb, adorned with sculptures, and bearing a long inscription, all of which remain to the present day. The great palace of Persepolis was his conception, if not his work, as was the equally magnificent structure at Susa, which was the ordinary royal residence from his time. He likewise set up the great rock inscription at Behistun, the most remarkable of all the Persian monumental remains."—*Rawlinson's Ancient History.*

* Xerxes was a licentious and cruel monarch, and from him commenced the long course of folly, self-indulgence, and wickedness that disgrace the subsequent history of Persia. He was murdered by the captain of his guard and his chamberlain. Xerxes is supposed to have been the Ahasuerus of Esther; as the latter name is the Semitic equivalent of the Aryan *Khshayarsha*, corrupted into *Xerxes*.

state, brought about by luxury and sensual indulgence. They made but little progress in the industrial arts, as they were enabled to obtain from Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, Phœnicia, and India the rich products of those countries.

Arts.

100. Architecture was, however, cultivated with success; and the ruins of their beautiful city, Per-sep'o-lis, still bear witness to the progress they had made in that art. This city, called in ancient times "The Glory of the East," was adorned in every possible way by the great Achæmenian princes. The most prominent features of its edifices were lofty and spacious stone platforms, approached by magnificent flights of stairs, also elaborate and tasteful sculptures and bas-reliefs, and long rows of light and graceful columns. The interiors were ornamented with beautiful paintings. The royal palace of Persepolis, afterward wantonly destroyed by Alexander the Great, was a miracle of magnificence, as the ruins of the Great Hall of Xerxes, or Hall of a Hundred Columns, still dimly show. The Persians, unlike the Egyptians and Assyrians, delighted rather in splendid palaces and sumptuous tombs than in stately and magnificent temples. Ruins of palaces are also found at Pasargadæ, which was the residence of Cyrus and Cambyses, as Persepolis was the capital of Darius and Xerxes. There are similar ruins of Susa and Ecbatana.

Architecture.

101. The ancient religion of the people of Iran was, at first, a kind of Brahmanism, like that of the Hindoos; but after the exodus of the Aryans, who migrated to India, a deadly feud arose between the two branches of that race, and the Persians adopted new beliefs and ceremonies. Their religion was, however, essentially the worship of one Supreme Being, symbolized by the sun and by fire; but, in course of time, it became corrupt, under the Magi, or fire-priests. Then Zo-ro-as'ter, or more properly Za-ra-thus'tra (meaning *chief* or *high-priest*),

Religion.

Zoroaster.

arose, and taught a purer and simpler doctrine, the worship of the Infinite Spirit, under the name of Ahura Maz'da (Ormuzd).* This is the religion of the Parsees, and is contained in the sacred book of the Persians, called Zend-Avesta.† In later times, Zoroaster's teachings were perverted into the doctrine of Ormuzd, the principle of good, and Ahriman, that of evil. Light and fire, as emblems of the Divinity, are held sacred; and in the temples the fires are kept perpetually burning. Even the priests approach them with masked faces, lest their breath should defile them; and they touch them only with consecrated implements.

Language.

102. The chief remains of ancient Persian are the cuneiform inscriptions of the Achæmenian princes, discovered in the ruins of Persepolis, on the famous rock of Behistun, and at other places. A few proper names, and terms for vessels and garments, have survived in the Bible, chiefly in Daniel. The alphabet commonly used by the Persians was not cuneiform, but Semitic. The Zend, a rich language, agreeing with the Sanskrit of the Vedas, died out in the third century B.C. The *Shah Nameh* (*Book of Kings*), a poem, written by Firdusi (*feer-doo'se*) in the tenth century A.D., contains the history of Persia from the earliest times. Much of it is, however, fabulous.‡

* *Ahu'ra* is the good spirit, as *Diva* is the evil one. *Ahura-Mazda* is the *Good Spirit, the Creator.* This word was corrupted into *Ormuzd.* Zoroaster's life is shrouded in darkness, very little being known in regard to the period in which he lived, or the circumstances of his career as a religious reformer. He was born, it is said, in Bactria; and the Persian traditions appear to indicate that he must have lived before the Assyrian conquest of Bactria, which took place about 1200 B.C. The Zend-Avesta represents him as a being of supernatural character, endowed with divine powers and intelligence, holding intercourse with the Deity, and receiving from him the moral and spiritual truths which he taught to mankind.

† *Zend* means *translation* or *commentary; avesta*, or *avastha*, *text* or *scripture.* The Zend language is closely related to the Sanskrit.

‡ Firdusi was the greatest epic poet of the Persians. His *Book of Kings* abounds in beautiful poetry, but is a strange medley of truth and fiction. It was written to please the King rather than to state historical facts. Firdusi died 1020 A.D.

Review Outline.

Contemporaneous Events.	Egyptian History.
	First dynasty of Egyptian kings (about 2700 B.C.). Memphis a large and flourishing city.
	Fourth dynasty—pyramid-builders—began about 2500 B.C. Shufu (Suphis or Cheops) built the Great Pyramid (about 2400 B.C.).
Babylon founded, 2200 B.C.	The Hyksos or Shepherd Kings (1900 to 1525 B.C.). The Israelites go down into Egypt, where they remained 215 years. The Exodus (1652 B.C.).
Arabian dynasty of Chaldean kings.	The most splendid period of Egyptian history (1525 to 1200 B.C.); reigns of Thothmes III. and IV.; conquests of Seti (Sesostris) and Rameses II. magnificent temples erected in Egypt and Nubia. Great Hall of Karnac built.
Conquest of Babylon by the Assyrians, 1250 B.C.	
	Priestly dynasty of the Tanites ("High Priests of Amun")—period of Egyptian decline.
Ethiopia independent, 750 B.C.	Sheshonk (Shishak); partial revival of Egyptian glory; invasion of Judah.
	Ethiopian (25th) dynasty; Sabaco (or So); conflict with Sargon (724 B.C.); Tirhakah, greatest of the Ethiopian kings; alliance with Hezekiah against Sennacherib. Conquest of Egypt by the Assyrians; divided into subject states.
Sargon, king of Assyria, 745 to 705 B.C.	
Nineveh taken by the Medes, 625 B.C.	Psammetichus, founder of the 26th dynasty, encouraged art and constructed great military works (reigned from 664 to 610 B.C.).
War between the Medes and Lydians, 610 B.C.	Necho or Nekao, son of Psammetichus; great maritime enterprises; circumnavigation of Africa. Defeated by Nebuchadnezzar (605 B.C.).
Babylon taken by Cyrus, 538 B.C.	Amasis, fifth king of the 26th dynasty; a wise and active monarch; a long and prosperous reign.
	Psammenitus, son of Amasis; defeated by Cambyses, the king of Persia, at Pelusium (525 B.C.): end of the 30th dynasty of Manetho; Egypt under the rule of the Persians (31st dynasty).

PHŒNICIANS.	HEBREWS.
	Abraham's migration from Chaldea to Palestine (Canaan), about 2000 B.C.*
Early settlements and maritime enterprises.	Jacob and his sons go down into Egypt (about 1867 B.C.). Sojourn in Egypt 215 years. Exodus, 1652 B.C.; beginning of the Jewish state.
	Period of the Judges—about five centuries, to Samuel, the last of the Judges.
Sidon and Tyre.	Saul, the first king, 1095 to 1055 B.C.
	David, 1055 to 1015 B.C.; territories of the kingdom greatly enlarged.
Sidon subdued by the Philistines; Tyre predominant (1050 B.C.).	Splendid reign of Solomon, 1015 to 975 B.C.; greatest extent of the Jewish kingdom.
	Rehoboam's tyranny and insolence cause the disruption of the kingdom into two: (1) JUDAH, that of Rehoboam, and (2) ISRAEL, that of Jeroboam.
Carthage founded by the Tyrians, 878 B.C.	Israel, having lasted 250 years, is destroyed by the Assyrians, 721 B.C. Hoshea, the last king. The captivity of the ten tribes. Judah lasted about 385 years.
Phœnicia under Assyrian rule, about 830 B.C.	Prosperous reign of Jehoshaphat, 916 to 892 B.C.
Phœnicia under Egyptian rule, 608 B.C.	Invasion by Sennacherib and the destruction of his army, during the reign of Hezekiah, 726 to 697 B.C.
Conquered by Nebuchadnezzar, and under Babylonian rule till subdued by Cyrus, 538 B.C.	Jerusalem taken and destroyed, in the reign of Zedekiah, the last king (586 B.C.). The fifty years' captivity. Restoration of the Jews by edict of Cyrus, 536 B.C.
Tyre and Sidon taken by Alexander, 332 B.C.	Judea, the land of the Jews, under the rule of Persia till its conquest by Alexander the Great; after his death (324 B.C.), a part of Ptolemy's kingdom; subsequently, a part of the dominions of Antiochus the Great. Successful revolt of the Jews under Maccabeus, 165 B.C.: Judea, an independent kingdom till its conquest by Pompey the Great (63 B.C.).

* It is impossible to fix with any degree of accuracy the dates of these early events. The Biblical chronology, by Usher, puts the call of Abraham at 1821 B.C.; according to Lepsius, he entered Palestine about 1700 B.C.; but according to Bunsen, 2886 B.C. In Beer's *Life of Abraham*, his birth is placed in 2040 B.C. See *Encyclopædia Britannica*, Art. ABRAHAM.

KINGS OF ISRAEL AND JUDAH.

Kings of Israel.	Length of reign, in years.	Reign commenced. B.C.	Kings of Judah.	Length of reign, in years.
Jeroboam	22	975	Rehoboam	17
		958	Abijah	3
		956	Asa	41
Nadab	2	954		
Baasha	24	953		
Elah	2	930		
Zimri	0	929		
Omri	12	929		
Ahab	22	918		
		916	Jehoshaphat	25
Ahaziah	1	897		
Jehoram	12	896		
		892	Jehoram	8
		885	Ahaziah	1
Jehu	28	884	Athaliah	6
		878	Jehoash	40
Jehoahaz	17	856		
Jehohash	16	839		
		838	Amaziah	29
Jeroboam II.	41	823		
		809	Uzziah, or Azariah	52
Interregnum	11			
Zachariah	0	772		
Shallum	0	772		
Menahem	10	771		
Pekahiah	2	762		
Peka	20	760		
		757	Jotham	16
		741	Ahaz	16
Interregnum	9			
Hoshea	9	730		
		726	Hezekiah	29
Samaria taken		721		
		697	Manasseh	55
		642	Amon	2
		640	Josiah	31
		609	Jehoahaz	0
		609	Jehoiakim	11
		605	Jehoiachin, or Coniah	0
		597	Zedekiah	11
		586	Jerusalem taken	

THE PERSIANS.

The Persian monarchy was founded by Achæmenes, about 650 B.C. The Pasargadæ were the most prominent of the tribes. The Persians were at first subject to the Median monarchy.

Cyrus having been kept as a hostage, and educated by his grandfather, Astyages, at Ecbatana, determines to throw off the Persian yoke. He defeats Astyages and makes him a prisoner, 558 B.C. He rapidly subdues the whole of western Asia; is killed in 529 B.C.

Cambyses, son of Cyrus, conquers Egypt, and invades Ethiopia and Libya; is killed, 522 B.C.

DARIUS I., Hystaspes, deposes the Magian impostor, Smerdis, and ascends the Persian throne, 522 B.C. He organizes the empire; undertakes expeditions to India and against the Scythians; suppresses the revolt of the Greek colonies, and determines to conquer Greece.

Unfortunate expeditions of Mardonius, and of Datis and Artaphernes; the latter defeated by the Greeks at Marathon, 490 B.C.

XERXES organizes a vast expedition against Greece, in 480 B.C.; is totally defeated.

ARTAXERXES I. is compelled to make peace with the Greeks, 449 B.C.

DARIUS III. (Codomanus), the last king of ancient Persia, is subjugated by Alexander the Great (329 B.C.). End of the Persian Empire.

THE PERSIAN MONARCHS.

Name.	*Date of Reign.*	*Name.*	*Date of Reign.*
CYRUS *the Great*	559–529 B.C.	SOGDIANUS, a usurper	425 B.C.
CAMBYSES	529–522 "	DARIUS II., *Nothus*	424–405 "
SMERDIS, a usurper	522 "	ARTAXERXES II., *Mnemon*	405–359 "
DARIUS I., *Hystaspes*	522–485 "	ARTAXERXES III., *Ochus*	359–338 "
XERXES I	485–465 "	ARSES	338–336 "
ARTAXERXES I., *Longimanus*	465–425 "	DARIUS III., *Codomannus*	336–329 "
XERXES II. (reigned 45 days)	425 "		

LEADING DATES TO BE MEMORIZED.

B.C.

1652. Exodus of the Israelites from Egypt.
1095. Saul, the first king of Israel.
1055. David begins to reign over Israel.
1015. Accession of Solomon.
975. Secession of the Ten Tribes.
878. Carthage founded by the Tyrians.
747. Era of Nabonassar.
721. Samaria taken: end of kingdom of Israel.
625. Taking of Nineveh by the Medes.
586. Destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar.
558. Conquest of the Medes by Cyrus.
538. Taking of Babylon by Cyrus.
536. Restoration of the Jews.
525. Conquest of Egypt by Cambyses.
522. Accession of Darius Hystaspes.
501. Ionian revolt in Asia Minor.
490. Defeat of the Persians at Marathon.
480. Invasion of Greece by Xerxes.
329. Persia conquered by Alexander the Great.

No. 3.

MACEDONIA
Strymonic Gulf
Thracian Gulf
Olynthus
Potidæa
Pydna
OSSA
Larissa
Peneus
T. PELION
Cynoscephalæ
Pharsalus
SCIATHOS
EGEAN SEA
Lamia
Thermopylæ
EUBŒA
Chalcis
Eretria
Amphissa
W. LOCRIS
Delphi
Thebes
Delium
Platæa
Tanagra
Marathon
Corinthian G.
Megara
Eleusis
ATTICA
Sicyon
Corinth
ATHENS
Nemea
Mycenæ
SALAMIS
ÆGINA
Elis
Olympia
Mantinea
Argos
Epidaurus
Alpheus
Tegea
Tiryns
Messene
Sparta
LACONIA
LACEDÆMON
IONIAN SEA
Tænarum Pt.
Malea Pt.
ANCIENT GREECE.

CHAPTER II.

GREECE AND MACEDONIA.

SECTION I.

GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

1. The country known in history as Greece anciently consisted of three quite distinct parts: the first, in the north, was composed of Thes'sa-ly and E-pi'rus; the second, in the middle, which was the most important, was called Hel'las; and the third consisted of the peninsula which forms the southern portion of the country, called anciently Pel-o-pon-ne'sus, in modern times Mo-re'a. To these was afterward added Macedonia, which was situated to the north of Thessaly and Epirus.

Divisions.

2. Central Greece and Peloponnesus were divided into several small states, of which the most important were the following:

HELLAS.—At'tica, Bœ-o'tia, Pho'cis, East and West Lo'cris, Do'ris, Æ-to'lia, Acarna'nia, and Meg'aris.

PELOPONNESUS.—Corin'thia, Sicyonia (*sishe-on'ia*), Ar'go-lis, Achaia (*a-ka'yah*), Arca'dia, E'lis, Laconia, and Messe'nia.

Grecian states.

Besides these, the land of the Hel-le'nes included the Islands and the Colonies. Of the islands, the largest was Eubœa (*u-be'ah*), near the eastern coast of Hellas; and near the western coast was the important island Cor-cy'ra. Numerous islands were scattered over the Ægæan (*e-je'an*) Sea, among which the principal groups were the Cyc'la-des and Spo'ra-des. The term *Hellas* was

Islands.

sometimes used to denote the whole of Greece and her colonies.*

Colonies.

3. The Grecian colonies were very numerous and widespread. Those in and near Asia Minor were planted at a very early period by three different races, the Æolians, Dorians, and Ionians. The Æolians made settlements on the coast of Mysia and in the island of Lesbos, forming a confederacy of twelve cities (Æolis). The Ionians col-

onized the coast of Lydia and the islands of Chios (*ke'os*) and Samos (Ionia); and the Dorian colonies were in the southwestern part of Asia Minor (Doris). Of these the Ionians grew into the greatest importance. Their cities were especially noted for their enterprise, and during the eighth and seventh centuries B.C. Miletus was the first commercial city of the Hellenic race; but Eph'e-sus afterward rivaled it in size and importance. [See map.]

* "The limits of Greece proper seem not to have been very precisely defined even among the Greeks themselves; and so large a proportion of the Hellens were distributed among islands and colonies, and so much of their influence upon the world was produced through their colonies, as to render the extent of their original domicile a matter of comparatively little moment to verify. . . . . Hellas proper (or continuous Hellas) was understood to begin with the town and gulf of Ambracia."—*Grote.*

4. The southern part of Italy was called Magna Græcia, from the large number of Greek cities which it contained. One of the earliest was Cu'mæ, an Æolic colony, on the bay of Naples; but the most prominent were Syb'aris, noted for its effeminacy and loose morals, and Cro'ton, distinguished for its athletes and physicians. After the destruction of Sybaris by its rival Croton, Taren'tum took the lead among the cities of Magna Græcia. Sicily also contained a large number of Greek cities, of which the most noted were Messa'na, Syr'a-cuse, and Agrigen'tum. Syracuse was a Corinthian colony, founded 734 B.C. [See Map.]

Magna Græcia.

5. There was also a cluster of colonies at the western part of the Mediterranean Sea, of which Mas-sil'ia (now Marseilles), founded 600 B.C., was the chief. On the African coast, Cy-re'ne was established by the Spartans (630 B.C.). This city became the capital of Cyrenaica (*si-re-na'e-kah*). On the Propontis and the Euxine there were also numerous colonies, of which Cyz'i-cus and Si-no'pe were the most celebrated.

Other colonies.

6. The physical features of the mainland, particularly of Hellas proper, are (1) the deep inlets with which its coasts are indented, thus favoring maritime enterprises and associations, and bringing the people into connection with the ancient commercial nations; and (2) the numerous mountain ridges by which its surface was divided into distinct portions, thus favoring the formation of independent states. It is the existence of

Physical features.

these free states that renders the history of the Greeks so interesting and instructive, and makes the contrast so striking between it and the history of the ancient Asiatic and African monarchies. When we come to the period of Greek nationality, we cease to contemplate merely a record of the splendid deeds of emperors and kings; we look on the progress and exploits of a free people.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

[See Map No. III., and maps, pages 86, 87.]

What was the situation of: ATTICA? BŒOTIA? PHOCIS? EAST LOCRIS? WEST LOCRIS? DORIS? ÆTOLIA? ACARNANIA? MEGARIS? CORINTHIA? LACONIA? ARGOLIS? ACHAIA? ARCADIA? ELIS? MESSENIA? SICYONIA? EPIRUS? THESSALY? MACEDONIA? MAGNA GRÆCIA? SICILY? Eubœa I.? Salamis I.? Cyclades Is.? Lesbos I.? Samos I.? Rhodes I.? Pindus range? Œta Mts.? Mt. Olympus? Mt. Parnassus? Athens? Thebes? Delphi? Corinth? Sparta? Platæa? Marathon? Chalcis? Argos? Olympia? Sicyon? The Dorian Colonies? Ionian Colonies? Æolian Colonies? Croton? Sybaris? Tarentum? Cumæ? Pæstum? Syracuse? Messana? Agrigentum?

SECTION II.

FIRST PERIOD.

LEGENDARY OR TRADITIONAL HISTORY.

From the Earliest Times to 776 B.C.

7. The great Aryan wave of migration which, passing westward from Asia, swept over Europe, appears to have reached Greece in very early times. To this race the people called the Pelasgi belonged, relics of whose civilization still exist in the remains of a peculiar architecture called Cyclope'an, from the huge masses of stone of which the walls were built. But the Pelasgi formed only an important tribe among very many that then existed in the Greek peninsula, under different names, as Lel'e-ges, Cu-re'tes, Dol'o-pes, etc. This was the "golden age" of the

Pelasgi.

poets, for these tribes were a peaceful, agricultural or pastoral people, with simple manners and religion, probably knowing nothing of the numerous gods of the later Greeks.

Hellenes.

8. The Hel-le'nes, a kindred but more vigorous race, at an early period poured into the peninsula from the north, and gradually gained a dominant influence over the people with whom they intermingled. Of these there were originally two tribes, the Achæ'ans and the Do'rians, under the former of whom the three ancient kingdoms, Ar'gos, My-ce'næ, and Sparta, in the Peloponnesus, attained a considerable degree of civilization and prosperity. The Dorians, in the course of time, became an exceedingly bold and warlike tribe. Afterward two other tribes grew into importance, the Ionians and Æolians; and these four tribes gradually assimilated, constituting the four divisions of the Hellenic people; but among these the Ionians and Dorians became the leading races.

Heroic age.

9. The most ancient traditions represent the country as divided into a large number of small states, each under its own chief, or petty king, and engaged in war or piracy. This period is usually called the Heroic Age, because it abounds in fabulous stories of men of superhuman strength and valor, such as Hercules, Theseus (*the'sūse*), Achilles (*a-kil'lēz*), etc. The most interesting events referred to in this period were the Argonautic expedition and the Tro'jan war. The first, supposed to have occurred about 1225 B.C., was an enterprise the object of which, according to the tradition, was to bring from Colchis (*kol'kis*) the "golden fleece." * The heroes who engaged in it were called

* Athamas, king of Bœotia, married Neph'e-le, a cloud-nymph, but wearying of her, divorced her, and married Ino, who sought to put the two children of Nephele, Phryxus and Hel'le, to death. To rescue them, Nephele placed them on the back of a winged ram having a fleece of pure gold, the gift of Hermes, and they were carried away; but in crossing the strait between Europe and Asia, Helle fell into the sea, which was thenceforth called, after her, the Hellespont. Phryxus reached Colchis, and in gratitude for his preservation sacrificed the ram to Zeus. The

the Argonauts, because they sailed in a vessel called Argo. It appears to have been either a commercial voyage or a piratical expedition, its real object being disguised by the fable of the "golden fleece."

Trojan war.

10. The Trojan war is related by Homer in his famous poem called the *Iliad* (from *Ilium*, the ancient name of Troy). It was undertaken to avenge the crime committed by Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, who had abused the hospitality of Menela'us, king of Sparta, by carrying off his wife Helen, said to be the most beautiful woman of those times. The states of Greece joined in the war, and elected Agamem'non, brother of the Spartan king, their common general. Nearly the whole of Asia Minor leagued with Troy, whose chief leader was Hector, son of Priam. Troy was besieged ten years, and was finally taken by stratagem and burned (1184 B.C.). Homer's great poem the *Od'ys-sey* relates the wanderings of U-lys'ses, king of Ithaca, on his return home from the war.

MENELAUS.

Foreign settlements.

11. The traditions seem to indicate that important foreign elements were introduced into the Hellenic nation during this early period. Egyptians settled in Attica and Argolis; Phœnicians, in Bœotia; and Mysians, or Phrygians, at Argos. Hence was derived the use of letters from the Phœnicians (probably before 1100 B.C.). But these foreigners were few in number, and left only a faint trace upon the language or customs of the people. These

fleece was carefully preserved, and Aëtes, king of Colchis, being told that his life depended upon its safety, had it guarded by an immense dragon that never slept. *Colchis was situated to* the east of the Euxine, or Black Sea.

traditions give the names of Cecrops, the founder of Athens (about 1550 B.C.—period of Moses in Egypt); Cadmus, the founder of Thebes, in Bœotia (about 1492 B.C.—during the Chaldean Monarchy); and Pelops, who came to the Peloponnesus from Phrygia (about 1300 B.C.—during the time of the Judges, in Israel).

12. The general state of society in the period referred to in Homer's poems presents several marked features: 1. The tribe was superior to the city; while, in later times, the city became the mistress of the nation. 2. The kingly rule everywhere prevailed, and the office was hereditary. 3. There was also a powerful body of hereditary nobles, from whom the council of the office was selected, and an assembly to assist in administering the government, but with no control over it. 4. Slavery was a prevailing institution; females were held in respect, and polygamy disapproved; warlike virtue and physical courage were the greatest virtues, and consequently war was incessant; nautical habits were quite general, and piracy was a common practice. 5. There was a strong religious feeling, a respect for the priesthood, and a reverence for the temples, sacred places, and festivals. Hospitality was a national virtue, and heralds and suppliants were protected. Polytheism, or the worship of many gods, was the prevailing religious practice.

State of society.

13. This is also the period of those early leagues among the states called *Amphictyonies.* These were formed originally for religious purposes—to protect sacred buildings, lands, persons, and rites, and not for political objects. The oracle, or shrine of Delphi, was the center of the most noted of these. It was formed by twelve states or tribes; and meetings were held twice a year, in the spring at Delphi and in the autumn at Thermopylæ. This league, called the *Amphictyonic Council,* played quite a prominent part in the subse-

Early leagues.

Amphictyonic council.

quent history of Greece.* As there was no general political union, the Hellenic states were constantly embroiled during most of their history in mutual dissensions and destructive wars. This was partly due to the traditional animosities and jealousies of the different tribes, and partly to the geographical character of the country in which they dwelt; for being crossed in every direction by mountain chains, or divided by deep gulfs, it provided those natural barriers which encourage local pride and engender hostility. The later history of this remarkable people abounds in illustrations of this principle.

14. A great migratory movement commenced in Epirus about 1200 B.C. The Thessalians crossed the Pindus range and invaded the fertile country of the Bœotians, who passing southward entered the plain of the Ce-phis'sus, and drove out the Cadmeians, who were scattered in various parts. The Dorians also took part in this movement, and for a time settled in the country, which then received the name of Do'ris. The most important Dorian migration, however, took place later. Crossing the Corinthian Gulf, they entered the Peloponnesus with their allies, the Ætolians, and made a conquest of the country (1124 B.C.). This movement, being conducted by the descendants of Her'cu-lēs, is called in history the Return of the *Heracleidæ* (*her-a-cli'de*), the Greek name of Hercules being Her'a-clēs.

Migrations.

15. The former inhabitants, the Achæans, proceeding northward, attacked the Ionians, whom they drove eastward to Attica. A part of these passed through the Cyclades across the Ægæan, and established the colony of Ionia, in Asia Minor; as the Æolian colony had

Colonies.

* "The tendency to religious fraternity took a form called an Amphictyony, different from the common festival. A certain number of towns entered into an exclusive religious partnership, for the celebration of sacrifices periodically to the god of a particular temple, which was supposed to be the common property, and under the common protection of all. . . . . There were many religious partnerships of this sort."—*Grote.*

been previously caused by the Bœotian conquest. The Dorian invasion caused a part of the Achæans to emigrate to Asia under Doric leaders, while another part settled in Italy.

SECTION III.

SECOND PERIOD.

DAWN OF AUTHENTIC HISTORY.

From 776 B.C. *to* 500 B.C.

16. The authentic history of Greece may be properly considered to commence 776 B.C.; that is, at the first recorded Olympiad, a period of four years, which elapsed between two successive celebrations of the Olympic games. These games were celebrated in honor of Jupiter, at Olympia, in Elis, and constituted the most splendid national festival of the Greeks. Their origin is lost in the darkness of antiquity. It was, as is supposed, about this time (776 B.C.) that Lycur'gus reformed the government and laws of Sparta, and gave to it the constitution by means of which it afterward acquired the supremacy in Grecian affairs. This city, the capital of Laconia, sometimes called Lacedæmon (*las-e-de'mon*), was conquered by the Dorians, when they invaded the Peloponnesus, and soon became the head of the Dorian states.

Olympiads.

Sparta.

17. The system of Lycurgus was designed to perpetuate the primitive simplicity and hardihood of the people, by preventing the spread of luxury, and by educating the youth so as to make them brave and patriotic soldiers. To this end everything was sacrificed. Most of the usages of society commonly considered refined were repressed; even the natural affections were extinguished. From the seventh year the children were taken from their

Laws of Lycurgus.

parents to be educated by the state, unless they were weakly, when they were exposed to perish. They were trained to endure hunger and thirst and the extremes of heat and cold, and to suffer without murmur the severest bodily pain. Gymnastic exercises and military drill were incessant; in short, the great object was to make them good soldiers. They took their meals in public, and were allowed only the plainest fare. Besides this athletic training, letters and music were taught. Girls were educated with no less care than boys, and were subjected to similar athletic training.

18. The men were allowed but little more freedom than the boys. They took their meals at the public tables, and slept in the public barracks, but were allowed to visit their homes at certain intervals. Their public duties occupied nearly all their time, so that they could not engage in private enterprises of commerce or agriculture, or any occupation of profit. The use of gold and silver was strictly forbidden, and the money was coined out of iron.* Marriage was regulated by the state, and at a certain age all were obliged to marry.

Government.

19. The government was administered by two chief magistrates called kings, who were hereditary, but whose power was very limited; a senate, elected by a general assembly of the older citizens; and five magistrates, called *eph'ors* (*eph'o-ri*). The kings presided in the senate, and led the armies. The special business of the ephors was to watch over the constitution, as established by Lycurgus, and bring to swift punishment all who violated it in the least. They had great power: they could restrain the

* "The first gold and silver coins were brought from Asia to Hellas as an article of commerce. Gradually they came into use as money. After the state had commenced to coin its own money, for a long time there existed only a small amount of coined money in the land, and this was chiefly in the hands of the men of business and merchants. As soon as money ceased to be an article of trade like other articles coming on the market, when even the poorer classes could not exist without it—the laws of debt prevailing in the interest of the proprietors,—money, like a poisonous plant, absorbed and consumed the strength of the land."—*Curtius's History of Greece.*

kings and control the public assemblies; and they were the arbiters of peace and war.

20. This wonderful constitution made, in a short time, a nation of warriors; while the women themselves sank their natural affections in their devotion to their country. No Spartan mother would deign to look at a son who had disgraced himself by cowardice or treason. "Return with your shield or upon it!" was her admonition to her son when he was about to depart for the field of battle. Military glory was, however, all the Spartans attained. They had no orators, no poets, no historians, no philosophers, nor artists. Their Helots, or slaves, performed all the labors of the husbandman and the artisan, thus leaving to the free only the pursuits of war.

Spartan character.

21. The effect of this system was illustrated in the wars which the Spartans waged against the Messenians. The first of these lasted twenty years (743–723 B.C.); and the second, seventeen years (685–668 B.C.). They resulted in the total defeat of the Messenians and in their partial dispersion into various parts, so that for the next three centuries Messenia formed a part of Laconia.* Wars were also waged by Sparta with the other states of the Peloponnesus, which resulted in extending her authority over the whole peninsula. The Arcadians became her subject allies (560 B.C.); the Argives were too much weakened by defeat to make any further resistance (547 B.C.); and no northern state could, at that period, compete with her in war. Thus, in the sixth century B.C., Sparta became the controlling power in the Peloponnesus, and threatened to extend her sway over all Greece.

Messenian wars.

Other wars.

22. The most important state of Central Greece, afterward the great rival of Sparta, was at this period Attica, of

* More than two centuries later, when the Helots, or slaves, revolted at Sparta, the Messenians attempted to regain their independence, thus bringing on a *third Messenian war*, which lasted for ten years. It was closed by a treaty which permitted the Messenians to remove, with their families, from the Peloponnesus.

which the capital was Ath'ens, in some respects the most renowned city in the world. It was the seat of learning and the arts, and may justly be considered the mother of modern civilization. Its people were of Ionian origin, although in the mythic history of Athens it is said to have been first settled by a colony from Egypt, under Ce'crops (about 1550 B.C.). Until the eleventh century, its government was monarchical; but after the return of the Heracleidæ it was vested in elective magistrates, called *archons* (*ar'kons*). The last king of Athens, Co'drus, in a war with the Dorians, sacrificed his life to save the city from capture. This was done in pursuance of the words of the oracle: "If the king die, the Athenians shall triumph." Accordingly, Codrus, in the disguise of a peasant, entered the camp of the enemy and assaulted one of the soldiers, and was immediately slain by him. The discovery of the death of the Athenian king so disheartened the Heracleidæ, or Dorians, that they retreated, and it was decreed at Athens that no man was worthy to succeed Codrus.

Athens

23. Athens suffered for centuries from anarchy and misrule; but, in the seventh century (624 B.C.), it adopted the laws proposed by Dra'co, which were so severe that they were said to have been written in blood. Draco's code of laws imposed the penalty of death for all offences; "for," he said, "the smallest crime deserves death, and I can find no heavier penalty for the greatest." They gave place to the constitution and laws devised by Solon (594 B.C.).* By these the government was vested in a senate

Draco.

* Solon was counted among the "Seven Sages of Greece," namely: Bi'as, Chi'lo, Cleobu'lus, Pit'tacus, Perian'der, So'lon, and Tha'les. To these are attributed many pithy moral maxims; as, "Know thyself," "Know thy opportunity," "Consider the end," "The greatest blessing is the power to do good," "Pardon often checks crime more effectually than punishment."

"An untiring love of knowledge filled Solon from his earliest youth up to the end of his life; for even when at the point of death he is said to have raised his weary head to take part in the conversations of his friends. This love of knowledge, as well as his domestic circumstances, early caused him to quit the narrow circle

or council, a general assembly of the people, and a chief magistrate, called *Archon* (ruler), with eight inferior executive officers. The most venerable court of justice was that styled the A-re-op'a-gus,* the members of which were inspectors of education and morals, as well as administrators of the laws.

Solon.

SOLON.

24. The constitution of Solon laid the foundation of the greatness of Athens; but this plan of government was not of long duration. The discontented were for a time restrained by his personal influence, but violent contentions soon broke out among the local factions. Of these, Pi-sis'tra-tus took advantage, and seized the government as dictator (560 B.C.). He exercised a despotic sway for about seventeen years, and transmitted his authority to his two sons, Hip'pi-as and Hip-par'chus, called sometimes the *Pisistrat'idæ* (sons of Pisistratus). He, however, ruled with moderation, patronized literature and the arts, adorned Athens with many beautiful buildings, opened a public library, and collected, it is said, the poems of Homer.†

Pisistratus.

of home, and to explore the world. In the midst of his restless life of travel, all his thoughts and wishes remained devoted to his home. Whatever met his eye he looked upon with reference to Attic interests."—*Curtius's History of Greece.*

* Areopagus (Mars Hill) was the name given to a small eminence near the Acropolis at Athens. The court of Areopagus was held here, in an open space, containing at first only an altar to Minerva and two stone seats, for the accuser and the defendant. Later, the space was inclosed and roofed with tiles. This court was said to have been founded by Athene (Minerva); and when the judges were equally divided she gave the casting vote. Religious causes and murders were tried in this court; for here it was, according to the legend, that Ares (Mars) was tried for the murder of the son of Poseidon (Neptune). [See cut, page 98.]

† It is believed that Æsop, the celebrated author of the Fables, was a friend of Pisistratus. This personage only wanted a lawful title to the sovereignty which he exercised, to have left his name to posterity as one of the most splendid examples of princely virtue.

25. His successors, Hippias and Hipparchus, governed for several years with mildness and justice; but an act of tyranny committed by Hippias caused a conspiracy to be formed against them, and Hipparchus was slain (514 B.C.). Hippias ruled with great severity for four years longer, when he was expelled, with the aid of the Spartans (510 B.C.). He took refuge at the court of Darius, king of Persia. Harmo'dius and Ar-is-to-gī'ton, the leaders in the conspiracy against the tyrants, were ever after held in honor. Statues were erected to their memories, and their descendants enjoyed an immunity from all taxes and public burdens.

Hippias and Hipparchus.

26. After the expulsion of the tyrant Hippias from Athens, the government, under the administration of Clis'the-nēs, an able statesman, underwent several modifications. Clisthenes, next to Solon, may be considered the founder of the free institutions of Athens. The measures adopted by him made the government truly democratic; for all classes—the poor as well as the rich—felt they had an equal interest in the welfare of the state. A very remarkable institution was devised at this time to prevent, in the future, any powerful and ambitious citizen from making himself dictator or despot. This was the famous *Ostracism*, by which any citizen could be banished for ten years without trial or even any formal accusation, but simply by a vote of the people, each citizen writing the name of the person

Clisthenes.

RUINS OF AREOPAGUS AND THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS.

Ostracism.

whom he wished to banish on a shell (*ostracon*). Six thousand votes were required against any person to determine his condemnation. Though apparently unjust and unreasonable, this law was effective, for no attempt at usurpation occurred after its establishment.

27. The Age of Despots. It was not in Athens alone that despotic power was usurped and the popular government overturned. From 650 to 500 B.C. there were but few of the Grecian cities that escaped this calamity. Hence this period has been called the *Age of Despots.* In the city of Sicyon (*sish'e-on*) a despotic dynasty lasted for more than a hundred years, and in Corinth one that continued seventy-four years. The most noted of the despots of Corinth was Pe-ri-an'der, whose sway (from 625 to 585 B.C.), though oppressive and cruel, made that city the wealthiest and most commercial in all Greece. Like Pisistratus, he was a patron of literature and art, and his prudence and intelligence were such that he was classed among the Seven Wise Men of Greece.

Sicyon and Corinth.

SECTION IV.

THIRD PERIOD.

THE PERSIAN WAR.

From 500 B.C. *to* 449 B.C.

28. The Greek colonies in Asia Minor had been subject to Crœsus, but when the Lydian monarchy was overturned by Cyrus they fell under the Persian yoke. [See page 37:] In 500 B.C., an insurrection against Darius broke out at Mi-le'tus, the capital of Ionia, and spread through all the Greek cities in Asia. In this revolt, an Athenian force was sent to aid the Ionians, by means of which the city of *Sardis was taken* and burnt. The Ionian

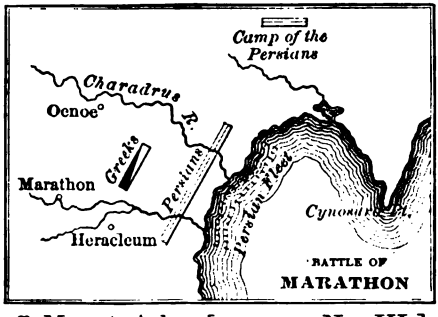
Revolt of the colonies.

fleet having been defeated, and the city of Miletus captured by the forces of Darius, the revolt was speedily subdued, and the Greek colonies were completely subjugated, and treated with great severity. All the inhabitants of Miletus were either put to death, or sent into captivity.

29. The aid given by Athens to the Ionians and the burning of Sardis drew down the wrath of Darius upon all Greece.

First expedition of Darius.

As soon as the colonies were reduced, he resolved to make a conquest of that country. Every day, as he sat down to dinner, a slave was ordered to repeat thrice the words, "Master, remember the Athenians!" In this design, he was further instigated by the revengeful representations of his guest, the tyrant Hippias. The first expedition which he dispatched against Greece proved an entire failure, the fleet being wrecked off Mount Athos [see map No. III.] and a large part of the army drowned. The forces were still further weakened in a night attack made by the Thracians, and Mardonius, the Persian general, was compelled to retreat (492 B.C.).



30. A second expedition, under Da'tis and Ar-ta-pher'nēs,

Second expedition.

sailed across the Æ-ge'an Sea, and after reducing several islands landed at Mar'a-thon, twenty-two miles from Athens. Here they were met by a small army of Athenian soldiers under Mil-ti'a-dēs,* and

* Miltiades was only one of ten generals to whom the command of the army had been given, each in succession having the right to conduct it for a day. Aristides (*ar-is-ti'dēs*), however, showed his moderation and patriotism by giving up his command to Miltiades, as being the best general; and, his example having been followed by the others, the result was a glorious victory. Few of the characters of history are so worthy of praise as the noble and patriotic Aristides.

completely routed (490 B.C.). This was one of the most memorable battles ever fought. The Persians, then famed as the greatest soldiers in the world, were more than ten times as numerous as the Greeks, and previous to that battle had scarcely known a check in their conquests. Had they succeeded at Marathon, European civilization would probably have assumed a new face; but, through the genius of Miltiades and the patriotic daring of the Athenians, aided by a small band of the Platæ'ans, the invaders were driven back, and Greece was saved.*

Battle of Marathon.

MILTIADES.

31. The attempt was not renewed by the Persians till ten years afterward, when Xerxes, the successor of Darius, collected one of the largest armies the world has ever known, besides an immense fleet, and having crossed the Hellespont by means of two bridges which he had caused to be constructed,† marched to the Pass of Thermop'y-læ, on his way into Greece. Here he was opposed by a small army under Le-on'i-das, a Spartan general. The defense was successful, until a traitor discovered to the Persians a path across the mountains, when, seeing no hope of victory,

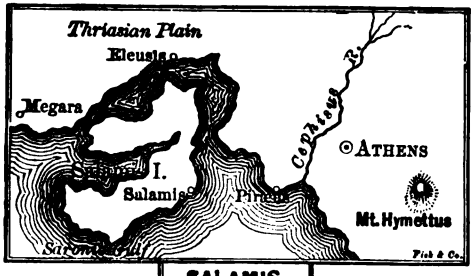
Expedition of Xerxes.

* Miltiades did not retain the glory which he gained by this splendid victory. He died in prison, of wounds received in a treasonable and unsuccessful attack upon the island of Paros.

† Herodotus gives a picturesque description of the passage of this vast force across the strait from Asia into Europe, after a review by Xerxes, sitting upon a marble throne, erected for the haughty monarch on a hill near Abydos. Libations were made by him with a golden censer, and with them he cast into the sea a golden bowl and Persian cimeter, at the same time offering up prayers to Helios, the god of the sun. The ten thousand Persians called the Immortals, all wearing garlands, were the first to pass over; and then followed Xerxes, at the head of the army. Notwithstanding the application of the lash to accelerate the progress of the soldiers, the passage occupied no less than seven days and nights, without any intermission. See *Grote's History of Greece.*

but being forbidden by the laws of Sparta to flee from the enemy, Leonidas dismissed the forces of the allies to avoid useless bloodshed, and then formed the ranks of his little band of three hundred for a final stand against the enemy. He then led them into the midst of the Persians, whence, after making great slaughter, they retired to a small eminence, and there fell, one by one, under the arrows of the Medes (480 B.C.). The heroism of Leonidas and his band has ever been a subject of praise and admiration. Probably, no event in the history of the Spartans has shed so much glory upon their character as the sublime self-devotion of the three hundred; yet it was a useless sacrifice of the lives of these brave men, who might have served their country far better by preserving their courage and strength for the conflicts that were to come.

Thermopylæ.



SALAMIS

32. The great Persian fleet came to action with the much smaller one of the Greeks in the narrow strait of Sal'a-mis, and was defeated with immense loss; so that Xerxes, who had witnessed the fight, fled in dismay to Persia, leaving the conquest of Greece to his general, Mardonius.* The chief command of the fleet had been

Salamis.

* The Persian monarch, confident of victory, seated himself upon a throne placed on a lofty promontory, so as to overlook the scene of the naval battle. It was of this event that Byron wrote the following lines:

> "A king sat on the rocky brow
> Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis;
> And ships by thousands lay below,
> And men in nations,—all were his.
> He counted them at break of day.
> And when the sun set, where were they?"

given to the Spartan Eu-ry-bi'a-dēs; but the credit of this great victory was due to the Athenian The-mis'to-clēs, who, when the Greeks, in alarm, were about to disperse their fleet, sent word to the Persians that unless they made an immediate attack the Grecian fleet would escape them. By this stratagem he succeeded in keeping the allies together and brought on the action.

33. In the mean time, the land forces of the Persians had invaded Attica and taken and destroyed Athens, the inhabitants of which had fled to the neighboring islands for protection. Thus was the burning of Sardis avenged. Still, the army of Mardonius, 300,000 strong, and assisted by Grecian auxiliaries (for a few of the Greek states had gone over to the Persians), did not come to any decisive engagement till the next year (479 B.C.), when it was defeated and almost utterly destroyed at Platæ'a by the allied army of the Greeks, consisting of 110,000 men, under Pau-sa'ni-as, a Spartan general, assisted by the Athenian A-ris-ti'dēs. On the same day the Athenians gained a great victory over the combined land and naval forces of the Persians at Myc'a-le, in Asia Minor.

Burning of Athens.

Battle of Platæa.

Mycale.

34. Having driven the Persians out of their country, the Greeks sent a fleet under Pausanias to invade the Persian dominions. This expedition was entirely successful; the Greek cities were set free, and Byzantium (*be-zan'she-um*), after a long siege, surrendered. At this point the Spartans, who had been the leaders in the war, lost their ascendency through the treason of Pausanias. Intoxicated by the fame and wealth which he had acquired at Platæa, and by his subsequent success, and ambitious of more splendor and influence than the little state of Sparta could confer upon him, he sent a letter to Xerxes, offering to deliver Greece into his power, if he would give him his

Byzantium taken.

Treason of Pausanias.

daughter in marriage. The plot was, however, discovered before it was carried into effect, and Pausanias was recalled, and, by order of the Ephori, put to death (471 B.C.).*

35. The allies then transferred the chief command to Aristides, who had at this time a great reputation for integrity and prudence. A league was also formed among the Ionians and some of the Greek islands, under the leadership of Athens, which was called the "Confederacy of De'los," since the deputies met at that island. This great maritime alliance contributed very much to the subsequent influence of Athens. It lasted about seventy years.

Confederacy of Delos.

36. The glory which Themistocles had gained at Salamis, together with his great ability and prudence, gave him unlimited influence at Athens. After the retreat of the Persians, he caused the city to be rebuilt and strongly fortified, notwithstanding the opposition prompted by the mean jealousy of the Spartans. But he was banished by the Ostracism; and after the fall of Pausanias was accused of participating in his treason (471 B.C.). He then took refuge in the dominions of Artaxerxes, the Persian monarch, where he lived in great splendor and dignity till his death (449 B.C.).

Themistocles.

ARISTIDES.

37. In the early period of the Persian war, Themistocles and Aristides were the most distinguished men at Athens. They were rivals for popular favor, particularly during the ten years preceding the invasion of Xerxes. The former was

* Pausanias was a man of great ability, but his ambition, pride, and desire of display destroyed him. On his return to Sparta he took refuge in the temple of Minerva, from which he could not lawfully be taken by violence. Accordingly, the entrance was fastened and the building unroofed, and he was left to perish by *famine and exposure.* [*Ephori*, literally, overseers; magistrates. See page 88.]

especially noted for his genius and his ambition; the latter for his prudence and stern integrity. Having been commissioned to take charge of the spoils after the battle of Marathon, Aristides so honorably discharged his duty that he was called "The Just."* This brought him into envy, and he was banished by the Ostracism (483 B.C.). He returned, however, just in time to aid his country in the battle of Salamis. Aristides survived the

Themistocles and Aristides.

THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS.

banishment of his great rival only a short time. He died honored by his countrymen, and with a reputation for virtue and patriotism that no one could impeach (468 B.C.); but as to the place and circumstances of his death the accounts given greatly differ. Notwithstanding his eminent services, he was so poor that his funeral had to be provided for at the public expense, and his children supported by state bounty. It is

* Themistocles had artfully insinuated that Aristides was aiming at the dictatorship at Athens, and thus the people were induced to banish the most upright man in the community. While the shells were being prepared for the vote, a peasant approached Aristides, and asked him to write the name of Aristides on the shell. "Has Aristides ever injured you?" he ventured to ask. "Oh no," said the peasant; "I do not even *know him, but I* am tired of hearing him called The Just."

remarked by historians that for two or three generations the poverty of his descendants was a subject of notice.*

38. Ci'mon, son of Miltiades, succeeded Aristides in the leadership at Athens. He gained a splendid victory over the Persians at the Eu-rym'e-don River, but afterward gave offense to the Athenians by favoring the Spartans. He was, accordingly, banished, through the contrivance of Per'i-clēs, who by this means gained a position of eminence at Athens which he held for thirty years. Pericles was a brilliant orator and statesman, and his administration was the most splendid the Athenians ever had. During the "Age of Pericles," art and literature flourished, and the city was embellished with the most magnificent edifices. Among these, the temple of Minerva, called the Parthenon, erected on the A-crop'o-lis,† may claim preeminence for beauty and artistic excellence.

Cimon.

Pericles.

39. Cimon, after a few years, was recalled from exile, and served in the war against the Persians. He died during the siege of Citium (*sish'e-um*), in Cyprus.‡ The Athenians soon after gained another victory over the Persians, which finally brought this long war to an end (449 B.C.). Athens gave up to Persia Cyprus and Egypt, while Persia acknowledged the independence of the Greek cities in Asia Minor.

End of Persian war.

* "Near a century and a half afterward, a poor man, a descendant of the just Aristides, was to be seen at Athens carrying a mysterious tablet, and obtaining his scanty fee of two oboli [pence] for interpreting the dreams of the passers-by."—*Grote.*

† Athens, anciently called Cecro'pia, from its founder Cecrops, was originally built on the summit of a high rock, from which it expanded into the great city of Athens. The ancient city was afterward called the Acropolis, or *Upper City*, and here stood many beautiful buildings, besides the Parthenon. [See cut, page 99.]

‡ Cimon was not only a man of brilliant talent, both as a general and a statesman, but possessed that generous, affable disposition, and kind and courteous demeanor, that was calculated to win the affections of the people. It is said he threw his gardens open to the public, and kept a table constantly laid for any one who chose to dine at it. He has been styled "the last of the Greeks whose spirit and boldness defeated the armies of the barbarians." In 460 B.C., he gained three *victories over the Persians* in a single day.

SECTION V.

FOURTH PERIOD.

From the Close of the Persian War to the Rise of Macedon, 449–358 B.C.

40. After the repulse of the Persians, there had been discord and war among the Grecian states. The disgrace of Pausanias, followed by the Confederacy of Delos, impaired the influence of Sparta and strengthened that of Athens; and that state took the lead during the remainder of the Persian war. Sparta was also disabled by the revolt of the Helots (464 B.C.), which occupied her attention for nearly ten years. [See page 89.] Argos, taking advantage of this, claimed the leadership of Greece, and Athens made an alliance with that state against Sparta. Several of the states, jealous of the Athenian power, formed a league against it; but Athens gained a great victory over the allied fleet.

Inter-state wars.

41. The administrations of Cimon and Pericles mark especially the period of the greatest glory of Athens. This was, in part, the fruit of the ability of Themistocles and the wisdom and integrity of Aristides; but it needed the genius of Pericles to give a finishing stroke to the work. Among his great works was the completion of the "long walls," which connected Athens with her port, Piræus. He was distinguished not only for eloquence and literary taste, but for the highest artistic culture. On his death-bed he remarked to his friends that his greatest consolation was, that none of his fellow-citizens had been compelled, through any act of his, to put on a mourning-robe.*

Height of Athenian glory.

* To every student of Grecian history, Pericles must ever appear as its central figure. His form and manner and outward appearance are all well known. His aspect was stern, almost forbidding, repelling rather than inviting intimacy; and this, with his majestic stature and massive head, silvered over with the marks of

42. Sparta made an effort to check the growing power of Athens; but Athenian arms were triumphant, and Pericles concluded a peace with Sparta for five years (451 B.C.). Only four years later, Athens received a severe blow, in the rebellion of Bœotia, followed by a serious defeat at Cor-o-ne'a (447 B.C.). At the close of the five years' peace, Sparta renewed her efforts to destroy her rival, and Athens was compelled to make concessions, which led to a thirty years' peace (445 B.C.). But this treaty, as we shall see, was not fully observed, owing to the rivalship and deadly animosity of Athens and Sparta.

Strife between Athens and Sparta.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

43. The struggle that now commenced, known as the *Peloponnesian War,* extended over the greater part of the Grecian world, and lasted twenty-seven years (431–404 B.C.). It was not only a war between rival states, but a "war of races;" for, on one side, the Ionian Greeks made common cause with Athens, as the Dorians took the side of Sparta. It was, moreover, a war of principles, since Athens was the representative of democracy, and Sparta of oligarchy. Athens was chiefly a maritime power; Sparta's strength lay in her disciplined armies. The former's influence chiefly prevailed on the eastern side of Greece and in Asia; Sparta's, on the western side and in Italy and Sicily. Athens assumed the position of mistress of an empire she had for fifty years been building up; Sparta

Athens and Sparta.

age even from his fiftieth year, excited something like awe in the beholder. The most stately reserve reigned through his whole life. Never were his features seen to relax into laughter, and only twice in his long career did they melt into tears. During that long period he never accepted but once an invitation to dinner. He was in the habit of writing out carefully all his speeches, but the effect of his delivery seems to have been overwhelming. It was sometimes compared to the thunder and lightning of the Olympian Jove, whom in majesty and dignity he himself resembled. Such is the picture we have of this most remarkable man.

professed to be only the leader of a confederacy formed to liberate Greece from the oppressive yoke of the Athenians.

44. The immediate cause of the war was a difficulty between Corinth and Cor-cy'ra, one of her colonies; for, because Athens took sides with the latter, the Dorian Confederacy accused her of violating the terms of the thirty years' peace, and a Spartan army was sent to invade Attica (431 B.C.). Unable, with his few allies, to contend against the superior military power of the Spartans, Pericles pursued the policy of keeping within the city, and sent his numerous fleet to ravage the enemies' coasts. A dreadful plague at this time broke out in Athens, causing the death of thousands. Pericles himself fell a victim to it (429 B.C.).*

Cause of the war.

First steps.

45. The most noted events in the early part of the war were the revolt of Lesbos from Athens, and the brave defense of Platæa against the Spartans. The flower of the Spartan army having been blockaded by the Athenian fleet at Sphac-te'ri-a, the Spartans applied to the Athenians for peace, which, through the influence of Cle'on, a low and noisy demagogue who had succeeded Pericles in the leadership of the popular assemblies, was refused. Sphacteria was afterward attacked, and the Spartans compelled to surrender. The Athenians were severely defeated by the Bœotians at De'li-um, and a short time afterward lost their empire in Thrace by the battle of Am-phip'o-lis, in which Bras'i-das, a distinguished Spartan leader, defeated Cleon, the Athenian,

Early events.

Cleon.

Delium.

* This dreadful pestilence commenced in Ethiopia, passed through Libya, and crossed the Mediterranean Sea to Greece. The sufferers were afflicted with an intolerable thirst, and many dragged themselves to the fountains and then fell dead, with none to bury them. It was midsummer, and not only was every house occupied, but many families were crowded together in stifling huts, where they died in heaps. The very temples were filled with the dead. The Peloponnesian army, after laying waste the vale of Attica for forty days, becoming panic-stricken at the pestilence, hastened homeward.

both generals being slain. This terminated the first period of the war; for, through the influence of Nicias (*nish'e-as*), the successor of Cleon, peace was made with Sparta.

Amphipolis.

46. There was, however, only a brief cessation of hostilities. Al-ci-bi'a-dēs, a handsome and talented but dissolute pupil of the great philosopher Soc'ra-tes, persuaded Argos to renew the war. He then induced the Athenians to send an expedition against Syracuse, to the command of which himself and Nicias were assigned. But Alcibiades, being accused of committing an act of great outrage and impiety, was recalled, and was condemned to death. He, however, escaped, and went over to Sparta. Nicias suffered a most disastrous defeat, losing one of the finest armaments that Athens had ever equipped (413 B.C.). This terminated what is regarded as the second period of the war, during which there was a nominal observance of the peace, each rival refraining from direct attacks on the other's territories.

Alcibiades.

Nicias.

47. Alcibiades, acting in the interest of Sparta, went to Ionia, and raised a revolt against Athens; but finding the Spartan generals hostile to him, he took refuge with the Persian Satrap, Tis-sa-pher'nes. His old feeling of patriotism returning, he made overtures to the Athenian army at Samos, and was made their general. He soon gained some brilliant naval victories over the Spartans, and was recalled to Athens with great enthusiasm and joy; but, after an unfortunate defeat, he was again driven into exile (407 B.C.).*

Victories of Alcibiades.

Defeat.

* He retired to Asia, where, through the influence of Lysander, he was assassinated by the Persians, in 404 B.C. With such resplendent and versatile talents, Alcibiades might have shed glory upon himself and his country; but he was "a slave to every passion," and plunged into every excess. He was distinguished as an orator, a statesman, and a general; and possessed of vast riches. Socrates greatly loved him, and at one time saved his life by carrying him off the battle-field. This favor Alcibiades is said to have reciprocated by saving the life of his

48. The chief command was then given to Co'non. Though an able officer, he lost in the first engagement, a large part of his fleet, and was blockaded by the Spartans. But reinforcements promptly arriving from Athens, gained a victory, and released him. The next year, he allowed himself to be surprised by the Spartan general Ly-san'der, at a place called Æ'gos-pot'a-mos, on the Hellespont, and nearly all the fleet was destroyed (405 B.C.). Lysander, following up his victory, the next year proceeded to Athens, captured the city, and thus ended this long war. For a minute account of these events we are indebted to the historians Thu-cyd'i-dēs and Xen'o-phon.

Conon.

Lysander.

49. Athens was thus driven to the most humiliating submission. She was compelled to destroy her port, to agree to undertake no military enterprise, except under the command of Sparta, and also to consent to the abolition of her popular government, accepting in its stead the rule of thirty magistrates, styled afterward, from their cruel and oppressive measures, the *Thirty Tyrants*. While it lasted, this was truly the "reign of terror" in Athens. But the democratic government was soon restored through the courage and patriotism of Thras-y-bu'lus, by whom and his associates, after capturing the fortress of Phy'lē, near Athens, the tyrants were expelled (403 B.C.).

SOCRATES.

Humiliation of Athens.

Thirty Tyrants.

50. A short time after this, perished, by an unjust sentence of the Athenian judges, at the age of seventy, Socrates,

teacher. "If he was not altogether worthy to be the preserver of the Athenian greatness, he merited the honor of casting the last rays of glory over it, and having his fall forever identified with its destruction."

the most virtuous and illustrious of all the ancient philosophers. Accused of irreligion, and of corrupting the youth of Athens by teaching false doctrine, he defended himself with great ability and courage; but he gave offense to the judges by not supplicating their mercy. He spent the interval of thirty days between his condemnation and death in tranquil discourse with his disciples; and having drunk the cup of hemlock,* with a firm and cheerful countenance, amid his weeping friends, died with perfect composure, expressing to the last his belief in an immortality beyond the grave (399 B C.).† His most eminent disciples were Plato and Xenophon, from whom we derive our knowledge of his doctrines, since he himself committed nothing to writing.‡

Socrates.

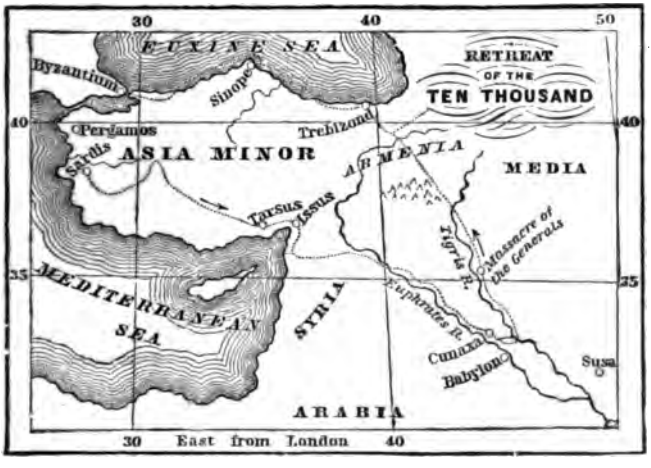
* "The Athenians were humane in their executions. They took pains to ascertain the most easy and gentle mode of death, as Xenophon points out in his *Apologia;* and on this account poisoning with hemlock was employed. Even the executioner, who handed the cup of poison to Socrates, shed tears; for he saw his magnanimity, and felt his innocence. It has been remarked that in their executions the Athenians were far more merciful than the modern Christian nations."—*Mahaffy's Social Life in Greece.*

† Socrates was pronounced by the Delphic Oracle "the wisest of men." This, he at one time remarked, seemed to be true, because "he knew that he knew nothing, while other men, he found, did not even know that." It has been said that "his uninspired wisdom made the nearest approach to the divine doctrines of the Gospel." One of his disciples said to him when in prison, "How sad it is that thou shouldst die innocent!" "What!" he replied, "would you have me die guilty?" To the last he taught the Christian principle that "it is better to forgive injuries than to avenge them."

‡ When Socrates was in middle age, there seemed to come to him a call—he said he heard a voice—bidding him to devote himself to the instruction of his fellow-men; and with a devotion unparalleled in all pagan history, he obeyed it. From that time, for thirty years, neglecting all other occupations, he applied himself to the duty imposed upon him. He was ever at his post,—in the public walks, at the gymnasia, in the market-place, wherever men congregated, there he stood, ready to talk with any one who would listen, young or old, rich or poor, never accepting fee or reward. His singular appearance attracted the attention of all; the repulsive features, unwieldy figure, naked feet, rough threadbare attire, sometimes caused laughter, sometimes disgust. But those who stopped to listen soon became interested, then spell-bound, at the wonderful power of his logic, the beauty of his speech, the elevation and originality of his sentiments, and the keenness of his wit; and while they felt they knew less than they had thought they did, they invariably desired to learn more.

51. A short time after the close of the Peloponnesian war, the Greek soldiers being unemployed, a large number (about 14,000), under a Spartan leader, named Cle-ar'-chus, entered into the service of Cyrus, surnamed the Younger, a Persian prince, and the brother of the reigning king, Artaxerxes II. His object was declared to be an attack upon the Pisidians, but his real design was to deprive his brother of the throne of Persia. They marched to Cu-nax'a, near Babylon, where an immense army of 900,000 Persians engaged the forces of Cyrus, consisting of

Expedition of Cyrus.



300,000 besides the Grecian mercenaries. The latter gained a complete victory; but Cyrus, in a rash attempt to slay his brother, was himself killed, and the expedition was abandoned (401 B.C.).

52. On their retreat, the Greek leaders were drawn into a conference with the Persians, and treacherously put to death. Xenophon, who had been a volunteer in the expedition, was then chosen commander; and the retreat was continued by the Greeks for a

Retreat of the Ten Thousand.

distance of more than 1500 miles, amid incredible hardships from cold, hunger, and the constant assaults of their enemies. They at last reached the Euxine, when they found their numbers reduced to about 10,000. This celebrated expedition, as well as the retreat which closed it, forms the subject of perhaps the most interesting work of Xenophon (the *An-ab'a-sis*). He afterward, with the same forces, entered the service of a Thracian king, and subsequently assisted the Spartans in Asia Minor against the Persians.*

53. In this war with the Persians, A-ges-i-la'us, the Spartan king, gained several important victories, but was suddenly recalled to defend his country against a powerful league, consisting of Argos, Corinth, Athens, and Thebes, formed to attack her. The confederate army was, however, defeated by Agesilaus in the battle of Cor-o-ne'a; but, about the same time, the Spartan fleet was almost entirely destroyed at Cnidus (*ni'dus*) by Co'non, the Athenian (394 B.C.). By this victory the Athenians regained the naval supremacy which they had lost at Ægospotamos.

Agesilaus.

XENOPHON.

54. The Grecian states being thus at war with one another, each party contended for the alliance and aid of the Persians. Conon, who by means of Persian gold had been enabled to

* The execution of Socrates took place during the absence of Xenophon from Athens; and, upon his return to his native city, he found that a decree of banishment had been issued against himself. It was then that he went to Asia Minor, and joined the Spartan army. The Lacedæmonians, at the close of the war, gave him the little town of Scillus, on the border of Elis, where he lived for some time with his wife and two sons. Though invited to return to Athens, he never lived again in that city. He died at Corinth in the ninetieth year of his age. Xenophon, as a soldier, philosopher, and writer, holds a conspicuous place in the annals of Greece.

equip his fleet and to rebuild the walls of Athens, was, through the machinations of Sparta, brought under suspicion with the king of Persia, and thrown into prison. The Spartans thus obtained the alliance of the Persians, and through their emissary, An-tal'ci-das, negotiated a peace by which the Greek cities of Asia were given up to Persian rule. This disgraceful treaty was ratified by the other states (387 B.C.).

Peace of Antalcidas.

55. The Spartans, having unjustly seized the citadel of Thebes, and held it for four years, were expelled, through the influence of Pelop'idas and Epaminon'das, two distinguished Theban patriots. This brought on a war between Thebes and Sparta, by which the former state rose to a great height of power and distinction. In the noted battle of Leuc'tra (371 B.C.), the Spartan army was defeated by forces much inferior in number, commanded by Epaminondas and Pelopidas; and the Peloponnesus was thrown open to invasion. Agesilaus, however, by his vigorous measures, saved Sparta from capture; and Epaminondas, after laying waste the territory of Laconia with fire and sword, retired from the Peninsula. The Thebans afterward again invaded the Peloponnesus, and in the battle of Man-ti-ne'a (362 B.C.) gained a great victory over the Spartans commanded by Agesilaus; but Epaminondas was mortally wounded. He died, as he had lived, a hero. A javelin had pierced his bosom; but in the agonies of death his inquiries were only for his country, and when told that the Thebans had triumphed, he exclaimed, "Then all is well!" and drawing the weapon from his breast, he immediately expired.

Theban war.

EPAMINONDAS.

56. Epaminondas is justly regarded as one of the greatest heroes and patriots Greece ever produced. Wise in council, and brave and skillful in battle, an accomplished statesman and orator, and, what is still more, a man of unswerving truth and honesty, he was, during all the subsequent history of Greece, universally considered the best model for imitation. With him the influence of Thebes began and ended. His last advice was followed by his mourning countrymen, and peace was concluded before they departed from the Peloponnesus. Agesilaus died the next year, while on his return from an expedition in which he had engaged, though eighty years of age, to assist Egypt against the Persians.* Though, perhaps, inferior to Epaminondas as a general, he was in wisdom and virtue his equal, being entirely free from the selfishness, deceit, and ill-faith that too often disgraced the Spartan character. He was small, mean-looking, and lame in one foot; and on that account objection had been made to his accession, for the oracle had warned Sparta of evils to occur during "a lame sovereignty."

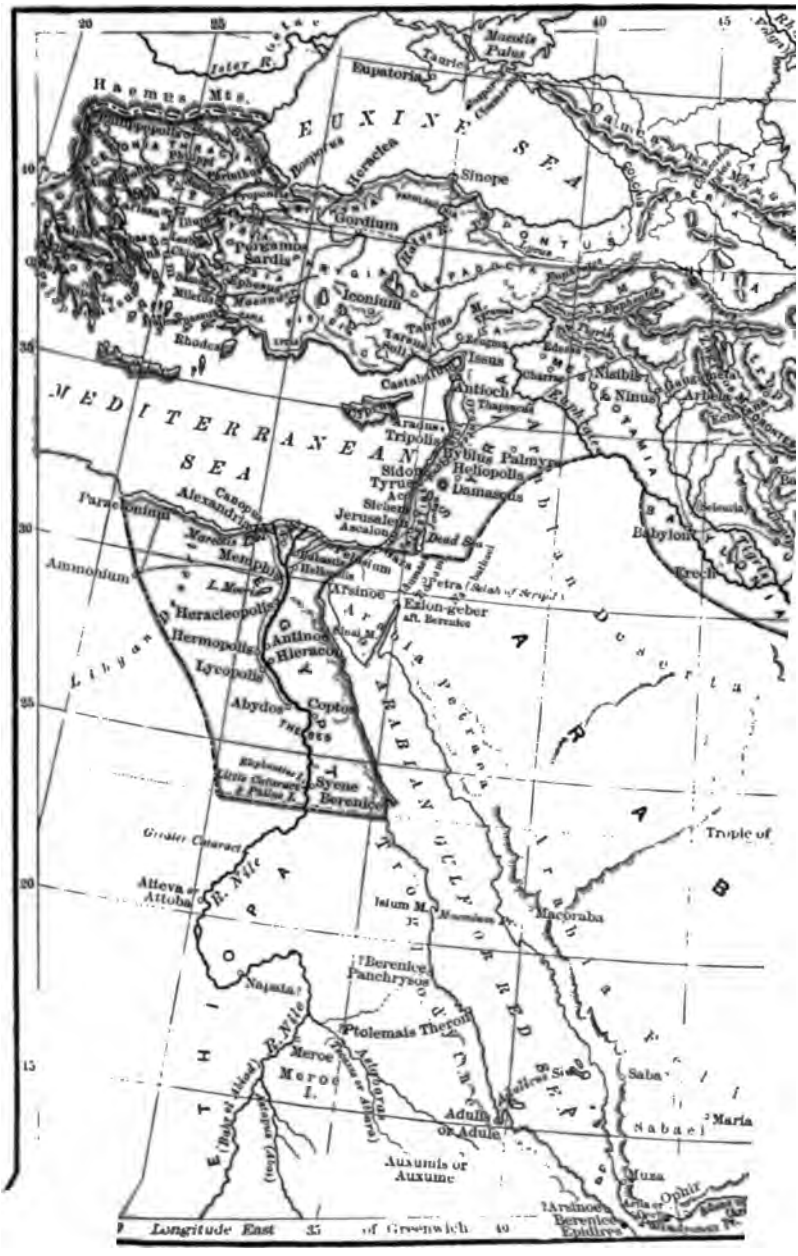
Epaminondas.

Agesilaus.

57. For more than sixty years, covering the period of the Peloponnesian and Theban wars, the Greek states had been wasting their strength in these constant struggles with each other. While, had they been united, they could have defied the hostilities of every other nation, they had now reached a state of exhaustion that made them an easy prey to the first ambitious potentate who might plan their conquest. Such a personage now appeared on the stage of history in Philip, king of Macedon; and the narration of Grecian affairs now becomes merged into that of Macedonia, just emerging into prominence.

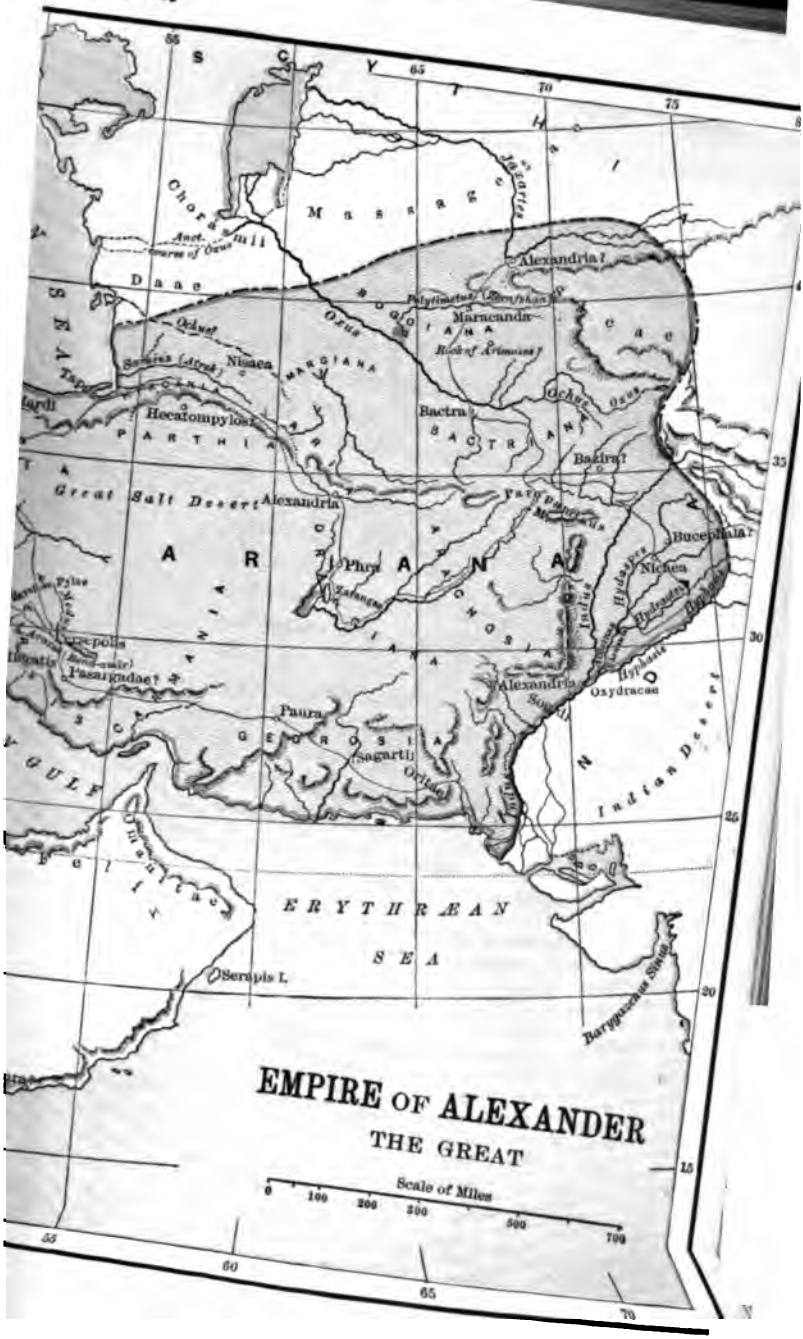
Greek dissensions.

* "Upon his arrival in Egypt, all the great officers of the kingdom came to pay their court to him; but when they beheld no pomp or grandeur of appearance, but only a little old man in mean attire seated on the grass by the sea-side, they could scarcely conceal their contempt, saying it reminded them of the old fable of the mountain in labor that brought forth a mouse."—*Plutarch.*



Haemus Mts.
Ister R.
Eupatoria
Taurica
Maeotis Palus
EUXINE SEA
Bosporus
Heraclea
Sinope
Gordium
Pergamos
Sardis
Iconium
Rhodes
Tarsus
Issus
Castabalus
Antioch
Thapsacus
Nisibis
Ninus
Arbela
Tripolis
Byblus
Palmyra
Heliopolis
Damascus
Sidon
Tyrus
Sichem
Jerusalem
Ascalon
Dead Sea
Babylon
Erech
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Paraetonium
Alexandria
Canopus
Memphis
Ammonium
Heracleopolis
Hermopolis
Antinoe
Hieracon
Lycopolis
Abydos
Coptos
Syene
Berenice
Arsinoe
Petra (Selah of Scripp)
Ezion-geber
aft. Berenice
Arabia Petraea
ARABIAN GULF OF RED SEA
Greater Cataract
Atteva or Attoba
R. Nile
Isium M.
Macoraba
Tropic of
Berenice Panchrysos
Napata
Ptolemais Theron
Meroe
Meroe I.
Adulis or Adule
Auxumis or Auxume
Saba
Sabaei
Maria
Muza
Ophir
Arsinoe
Berenice
Epidires
Longitude East of Greenwich

No. 4.



EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER
THE GREAT
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 500 700
Massage
Chorasmii
Daae
Alexandria?
Maracanda
Rock of Arimaces?
Nisaea
Hecatompylos?
Bactra
Bazira?
Great Salt Desert
Alexandria
Phra
Bucephala?
Nicaea
Persepolis
Pasargadae?
Alexandria
Oxydracae
Paura
Sagartii
Indian Desert
ERYTHRÆAN
SEA
Serapis I.
Barygazenus Sinus

astrous war broke out, caused by the revolt of some of her maritime allies, and leading to what is known in history as the *Social War*, that is, the war of the states. This lasted about three years, and ended in the defeat of Athens, thus securing the independence of the more important of the revolted allies (355 B.C.). It was during this period that Philip, taking advantage of the troubles of Athens, seized Am-phip'o-lis, and established a military station at Phi-lip'pi.

61. Soon afterward another war broke out in Greece, caused by the Phocians, who, instead of paying a fine imposed by the Amphictyonic Council for having occupied and cultivated a tract of land devoted to the Delphian Apollo, invaded the sacred territory, and surprised and took Delphi itself. This brought on what is called the *Sacred War* (357 B.C.), in which most of the states took up arms against the Phocians, while the latter succeeded in forming an alliance with Athens and Sparta. Thebes was the chief enemy of the Phocians, and at last, to satisfy her revenge, she invited the aid of Philip, and thus brought on the destruction of Grecian independence. For Thebes hated Phocis, because the latter had taken sides with the Spartans during the first part of the Theban war; and she succeeded in getting a decision of the Amphictyonic Council against the Phocians. The latter, being utterly unable to pay the fine, were compelled to fight; and, in self-defense, seized the Delphic treasures to pay the expenses of the war. They thus prolonged the struggle for eleven years.

Sacred war.

62. Philip, always eager to add to his dominions, had already attacked and defeated the army of the Phocians in Thessaly, and had taken and destroyed Olynthus. He now marched into Greece, and after taking possession of Phocis, occupied Delphi. He next assembled the Amphictyons, and procured a decree that the towns of the Phocians should be destroyed, and that their two votes should be transferred to Macedon, thus obtaining admission

Measures of Philip.

himself to the Council. Thus ended the Sacred War (346 B.C.), the effect of which was to make Macedon the leading state of Greece.

63. Meanwhile, the great Athenian orator, De-mos'the-nēs, had endeavored, by his splendid eloquence, to arouse his countrymen against the crafty designs of Philip; but, although the latter persisted in his schemes of conquest, it was not until 338 B.C. that any effort was made to oppose his progress. In that year a battle was fought at Chæ-ro-ne'a, in which Philip disastrously defeated the combined forces of Athens and Thebes, and thus completed the subjugation of all Greece. He, however, left to the states a nominal independence in their local affairs, he himself controlling all measures affecting the general interests.

Subjugation of Greece.

64. Philip next convened a congress of the Grecian states at Corinth, and obtained from it a formal declaration of war against Persia, and the appointment of himself as generalissimo of all Greece. He then returned home to prepare an expedition for the conquest of that country, which he had for some time meditated. Before, however, these preparations were completed, he was assassinated by Pausanias, a young Macedonian noble (336 B.C.); and Alexander, his son, afterward called the Great, ascended the throne, being then only twenty years of age, but thoroughly educated, partly under the celebrated philosopher, Aristotle (*ar-is-tot'l*).* Thebes, having received a report of Alexander's death, and thinking the opportunity a good one to regain her independence, revolted; but Alexander, with characteristic promptitude, marched against the city, took it, and razed it to the ground,

Death of Philip.

Destruction of Thebes.

* This distinguished philosopher was born at Stagira, a city near the Macedonian coast, B.C. 384. At the age of seventeen he went to Athens and studied philosophy in the school of Plato. He afterward established a school of his own in the grove called Lyceum, which received the name of the Peripatetic School, because Aristotle delivered his lectures while walking about (from the Greek word *peripatein*, to walk about). *He died in Chalcis*, Eubœa, at the age of sixty-three.

selling its inhabitants to the number of 30,000 into slavery. Thus a general rising was prevented (335 B.C.).*

CONQUESTS OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

65. After making this terrible example of Thebes, he set out on the expedition planned by his father, leaving An-tip'a-ter to administer the government of Macedon and Greece (334 B.C.). In the spring of that year, he passed the Hellespont with an army of 35,000 men, encountering no opposition from the Persians, who were hesitating as to the plan of opposing his march. The wise suggestions of Memnon, the Rhodian, then in the service of the Persian monarch, to send the fleet against Macedon, was rejected; and a battle was fought on the banks of the Gra-ni'cus River, in which Alexander gained a great victory, enabling him to overrun Asia Minor without opposition.

Persian expedition.

Battle of the Granicus.

66. The next year he defeated a vast army, commanded by Darius, the Persian monarch, at Is'sus. So complete was the rout that Darius fled in dismay, leaving his mother and wife to the mercy of the victor. These Alexander ordered to be treated with the greatest respect and attention. He then advanced toward the south, and all the cities of Phœnicia surrendered to him,

Battle of Issus.

* "A general assembly of the Greeks being held at the Isthmus of Corinth, they came to a resolution to send their quotas with Alexander against the Persians, and he was unanimously elected captain-general. Many statesmen and philosophers came to congratulate him on the occasion; and he hoped that Diogenes of Sinope, who then lived at Corinth, would be of the number. Finding, however, that he made but little account of Alexander, and that he preferred the enjoyment of his leisure in a part of the suburbs, called Cranium, the king went to see him. Diogenes happened to be lying in the sun; and at the approach of so many people, he raised himself up a little, and fixed his eyes upon Alexander. The king addressed him in an obliging manner, and asked him, 'If there was anything he could serve him in?' 'Only stand a little out of my sunshine,' said Diogenes. Alexander, we are told, was struck with such surprise at finding himself so little regarded, and saw something so great in that carelessness, that, while his courtiers were ridiculing the philosopher as a monster, he said, 'If I were not Alexander, *should wish to be Diogenes.*'"—*Plutarch.*

THE MARCHES OF ALEXANDER.
Dotted lines indicate the routes. Arrows → show the directions; heavy dots ● battles.
DACIA
Danube R.
MŒSIA
THRACE
EUXINE SEA
COLCHIS
CASPIAN SEA
Sea of Aral
Jaxartes R.
SCYTHIANS
Alexandria
The farthest
MASSAGETÆ
SOGDIANA
Oxus R.
Maracanda
Troy
Granicus
Gordium
Sardis
Miletus
ARMENIA
Tarsus
Issus
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Sidon
Tyre
Gaza
Alexandria
Memphis
Ammon
Pelusium
Thapsacus
Gangamela
Arbela
Damascus
Babylon
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Ecbatana
Susa
PARTHIA
BACTRIA
Alexandria
Alexandria
Indus R.
Hydaspes R.
Hyphasis R.
Return
INDIA
Indus R.
Nile R.
Thebes
RED SEA
Persepolis
GEDROSIA
PERSIAN GULF
Voyage of Nearchus
ERYTHRÆAN SEA
East from London

except Tyre, the siege of which delayed him seven months. He built a pier across the strait, half a mile wide, which separated the city from the mainland, and thus having gained access to the walls, he battered them to pieces and took the city by storm (332 B.C.). No mercy was shown to the wretched inhabitants, eight thousand of whom are said to have been massacred; and the remainder, numbering at least 30,000, were sold into slavery.

Taking of Tyre.

67. In the mean time, Darius solicited peace, offering to cede to Alexander the western half of the empire, and to give him his daughter in marriage. This, however, Alexander promptly refused, and continued his march toward Egypt, capturing Gā'za on the way. Passing through Egypt, he penetrated the Lib'yan desert, and paid a visit to the temple of Jupiter Am'mon. He also founded in Egypt the city of Alexandria, which for many centuries afterward was the first commercial city in the world, being the grand emporium of Europe, Africa, and India. This was the first city founded by Alexander and named after him. He subsequently founded no less than seventeen cities in different parts of Asia, to each of which he gave the name of Alexandria.

Egyptian expedition.

BATTERING RAM.

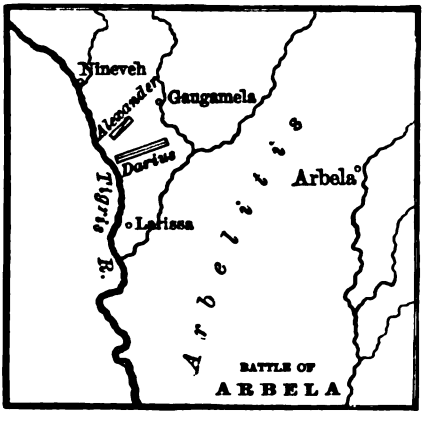
Alexandria founded.

68. Turning again to the east, he crossed the Euphrates, and prepared for the battle which was to decide the fate of Persia. On the plain of Gau-ga-me'la, a few miles from Ar-be'la, Darius drew up his immense *army, consisting* of over a million Persians, which, with

Battle of Arbela.

40,000 foot and 7,000 horse, Alexander, after a brief engagement, entirely defeated and put to flight (331 B.C.). Proceeding to Babylon, he entered the city in triumph, having made himself, at the age of twenty-five, master of the whole of Western Asia, together with Egypt.

69. He next advanced to Su'sa, a treasure-city of the Persians, which surrendered without resistance. Here were obtained gold and silver amounting to fifty million dollars, and, what was still more interesting to the Greeks, the spoils which Xerxes had carried off from Greece. Per-sep'o-lis, the real capital of the Persian kings, was the next city occupied by the invader; and here, it is said, the treasure captured amounted to 120 million dollars. Darius, in the mean while, had fled to Ecbatana, and thither Alexander went in pursuit, which he continued with great rapidity, until he reached Bactria, where he found that the Persian monarch had been seized and put to death by the satrap of that province. Alexander, still pursuing his career of conquest, defeated the Scythians on the banks of the I-ax'ar-tēs, and took possession of Mar-a-can'da (now Samarcand), the capital of Sog-di-a'na, where he married a Bactrian princess, named Rox-ā'na (328 B.C.). Here too it was that, at a banquet, in a fit of anger, he murdered his friend Cli'tus, who had saved his life at the battle of the Granicus. He next invaded India, defeated Po'rus, the king of that country, on the banks of the Hy-das'pēs, and



Taking of Susa and Persepolis.

Death of Darius.

Further conquests.

after a brief rest, pushed on to the Hyph'a-sis (the modern Sut'lej), when the soldiers, worn out with their toils, positively refused to proceed any farther. He then gave orders to return. [See map, page 121.]

70. Having built a fleet, he sailed down the Indus to its mouth; and then, leaving Ne-ar'chus to pursue the voyage of exploration, he marched through the burning desert of Ge-dro'sia to Persepolis, and thence by way of Susa and Ecbatana to Babylon, where he indulged in various schemes of further conquest. But, as he was about to set out on a campaign in Arabia, he was seized with a fever, said to have been occasioned by intemperance; and after eleven days' illness, he expired (323 B.C.). On his death-bed, being asked by one of his generals to whom he desired to leave his throne, he answered: "To the worthiest among you; but I am afraid my obsequies will be celebrated with bloody hands." He, however, gave his ring to Per-dic'cas.

Return.

Death of Alexander.

71. Of all the conquerors of antiquity, Alexander was, without doubt, the most enterprising and renowned. The splendor of his military achievements should not, however, blind us to the moral depravity which could sacrifice, without a single pang of remorse, so many thousands of his fellow-creatures, merely to gratify a thirst for vainglory. This insatiable desire seems to have been unmixed with any wish to benefit his subjects or mankind, although he founded cities that promised to be useful to him in carrying out his ambitious views, and in perpetuating his memory. In the hands of Providence, however, he was undoubtedly an instrument of good; since, by his conquests, the two continents were brought into closer communication with each other, and the language, literature, and arts of Greece were carried into the East.

Character.

72. In the mean time, the Spartans, under their king Agis, had made a vigorous effort, in common with most of the

other Peloponnesian states, to throw off the yoke of Macedon; but they were defeated with great slaughter by Antipater, Agis being slain in the battle (331 B.C.). Athens took no part in the struggle; but under the influence of Pho'cion, illustrious for the wisdom and moderation of his counsels, as well as for his stern republican simplicity and honesty, prosecuted the orators who had been active against the Macedonian rule, and because they had been found guilty of bribery drove them

Agis.

Conduct of Athens.

into exile. Among these was Demosthenes. When, however, the news arrived of the death of Alexander, the city of Athens gave way to the most excessive demonstrations of joy, and Phocion's party lost all their influence.

73. In an expedition under Le-os'the-nēs, the Athenians and their allies gained some important victories over Antipater, near La'mia, a fortified town near the border of Thessaly; but Antipater being joined by Crat'e-rus, one of the ablest of Alexander's generals, with

Lamian war.

a considerable force from Asia, entirely defeated them in Thessaly, and prevented any further resistance to the Macedonian authority (322 B.C.). Athens was compelled to give up her orators, including Demosthenes, who had been recalled from exile during the war. The latter, however, escaped, but was finally compelled to take poison in order to prevent being captured by his pursuers; while the others were cruelly put to death.* Thus ended what was called the Lamian War; and the defeat riveted the yoke of Macedonia upon Greece more firmly than ever.†

ALEXANDER'S SUCCESSORS.

Disposition of the empire.

74. After the death of Alexander, the great Macedonian Empire, which had been formed by his genius and valor, fell to pieces, as he left no successor able to control the restless ambition and rivalry of his generals. At first, his half-brother, Philip, and his infant son by Roxana were declared partners of the throne, while different parts of the empire were assigned to the generals, who were to rule as satraps; but Perdiccas was to act as regent. The latter was shortly afterward suspected of a design to usurp the throne, and a league was formed against him by An-tig'o-nus, Ptol'e-my,

Death of Perdiccas.

* Demosthenes retired to the island of Calauria, near the coast of Argolis, and took refuge in the temple of Neptune from the emissaries of Antipater. He died at the age of about sixty years. When he commenced to speak in public, his impediment of speech, weakness of voice, and awkwardness of manner made him an object of ridicule; but all these difficulties he overcame by intense effort and application, and became the greatest orator of his own or perhaps any other time. He saw through the designs of Philip from the first, and pronounced his most brilliant orations in exposing them. These were called "Philippics," because they were delivered against Philip.

† Leosthenes was a brave and skillful general, and had he not been killed during the siege of Lamia, in which Antipater shut himself up after his defeat, the war might have resulted differently. Besides, the dissensions in Athens prevented the sending of reinforcements to the army. Leosthenes was an orator as well as a general; and it was to him, on the occasion of one of his harangues, that Phocion said: "Young man, thy words are like the cypress, tall and large, but they bear no fruit." He was a vigorous supporter of the party of Demosthenes.

and Crat'e-rus. A war ensued, during which Perdiccas was assassinated by his own troops (321 B.C.). Antipater was then made regent, and the empire was again divided.

75. Antipater died three years afterward, at the age of eighty, leaving the regency to Pol-y-sper'chon, a veteran general of Alexander. This displeased Cas-san'der, Antipater's son, who had expected to succeed his father, and kindled a war of several years between the two generals, which resulted in Cassander's success. During this war Cassander placed the administration at Athens under De-me'tri-us Pha-le'reus, a distinguished Athenian orator, statesman, and writer, who ruled the city for ten years with so much popularity that the Athenians raised three hundred and sixty brazen statues to his honor. War having arisen between Antigonus and the other generals, Athens surrendered to Deme'trius Pō-li-or-cē'tēs (the *Town-Taker*), the son of Antigonus. Phalereus, who, by his dissipated habits, had lost his popularity, was compelled to flee, and all his statues were thrown down except one (307 B.C.).*

Renewal of war.

76. The war against Antigonus, which continued for nearly fifteen years (from 315 B.C.), was brought to a close by a decisive battle fought near Ipsus, in Phrygia (301 B.C.). Antigonus was defeated, and died of his wounds. This event nearly closed the long series of wars which followed the death of Alexander, and which proved his sagacity and foresight when he remarked that his obsequies would be celebrated by bloody hands. During these wars the whole of his relations, including his mother, Olympias, and his wife and son, were successively put to death.†

Battle of Ipsus.

* Demetrius found a place of refuge at the court of Ptolemy in Alexandria, where he lived upward of twenty years. His talents were of great service to the Egyptian monarch; and it is stated that it was by his advice that the famous museum and Alexandrian library were founded. Demetrius wrote many valuable treatises, but none of them are now extant. He was the last of the great orators of Greece.

† Roxana and the young Alexander were put to death by order of Cassander, after a treaty of peace, made in 311 B.C., one of the articles of which was, that

77. A more permanent partition of the empire followed the battle of Ipsus. Greece and Macedonia were assigned to Cassander; Egypt, to Ptolemy, who had previously ruled over it; Thrace and the greatest part of Asia Minor, to Ly-sim'a-chus; and western Asia, including the whole country from the coast of Syria to the Euphrates, to Seleucus. The latter founded on the river O-ron'tes a new capital of his empire, which he named Antioch, in honor of his father, An-ti'o-chus.

Partition of the empire.

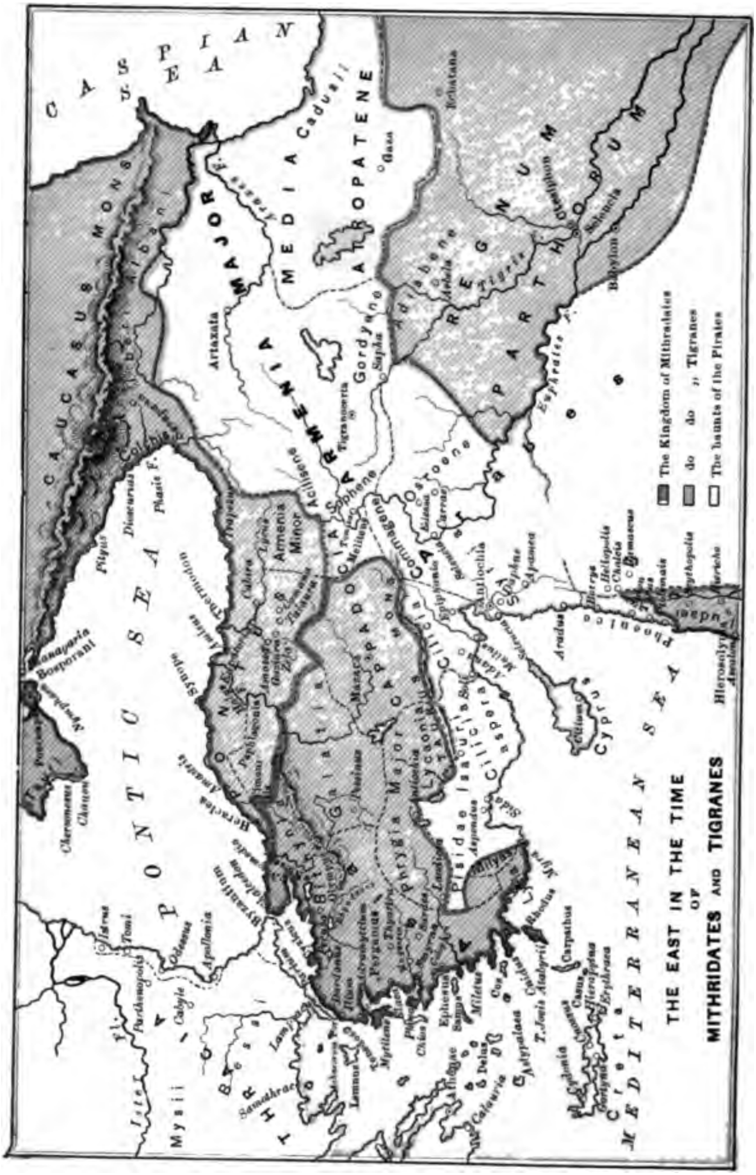
78. Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, who had retreated from Ipsus, still continued the struggle. He proceeded to Greece, but the Athenians refused to receive him. After forming an alliance with Seleucus, he again appeared before Athens, which, after a long siege, he captured, expelling the tyrannical governor whom Cassander had appointed (295 B.C.). The Athenians were greatly moved by his noble forgiveness and lenity; for, instead of the dreadful punishment which they had expected, he supplied their wants, and did his best to relieve the miseries occasioned by the long siege which they had suffered.*

Demetrius.

Cassander should retain his power until the prince became of age. The treaty suspended hostilities only for a few months. Olympias having engaged in a war against Cassander, about five years previously, was taken prisoner by him, and ordered to be put to death(316 B.C.).

* Demetrius had been the friend of the Athenians, freeing them from the power of Cassander and Ptolemy, and expelling the garrison which had been stationed at Athens under Demetrius Phalereus. After the fall of Antigonus, he fled precipitately, and with his fleet and a small remnant of his army he sailed to Athens. Word was sent to him that the Athenians had resolved to admit no king within their city. His triumphant entry into Athens is thus described by Plutarch: "He ordered all the Athenians to assemble in the theater, which he surrounded with his troops; and having planted his guards on each side of the stage, he came down through the passage by which the tragedians enter. The fears of the people, on his appearance, increased, but they were entirely dissipated when he began to speak; for neither the accent of his voice was loud, nor his expression severe. He complained of them in soft and easy terms, and taking them again into favor, made them a present of a hundred thousand measures of wheat, and re-established such an administration as was most agreeable to them."

No. 5.


THE EAST IN THE TIME
OF
MITHRIDATES AND TIGRANES
The Kingdom of Mithridates
do do „ Tigranes
The haunts of the Pirates
CASPIAN SEA
PONTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CAUCASUS MONS
ARMENIA MAJOR
MEDIA ATROPATENE
REGNUM PARTHORUM
Armenia Minor
Cappadocia
Galatia
Phrygia Major
Lycaonia
Cilicia
Commagene
Osroene
Sophene
Gordyene
Adiabene
Artaxata
Tigranocerta
Ctesiphon
Seleucia
Babylon
Ecbatana
Euphrates
Tigris
Antiochia
Cyprus
Creta
Thracia
Bosporani
Colchis
Phasis F.
Trapezus
Amisus
Sinope
Heraclea
Byzantium
Pergamus
Rhodus
Mysii

SECTION VII.

SIXTH PERIOD.

DIVISIONS OF THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE.

From 301 B.C. *to the Conquest of Greece* (146 B.C.).

I. MACEDON AND GREECE.

79. Cassander survived the victory at Ipsus only three years; and at his death he left the throne to the eldest of his three sons, who died soon afterward. Family dissensions followed, by means of which Demetrius possessed himself of the throne (294 B.C.), and held it for seven years, when it was seized by Pyr'rhus, king of Epirus, against whom Demetrius had made war. The latter, attacked by both Pyrrhus and Lysimachus, abandoned the Macedonian throne, and fled. Soon afterward, Lysimachus, after vanquishing Pyrrhus, obtained possession of the Macedonian territories, and united them with his own (286 B.C.). Thus the whole Macedonian Empire, except Egypt, was divided between Lysimachus and Seleucus. Demetrius died a captive at the court of the latter (283 B.C.).*

Cassander.

Demetrius.

Lysimachus.

80. The throne of Macedon was filled by Lysimachus about five years, when hostilities arose between him and Seleucus; and, in a battle near Sardis, the former was defeated and slain. This gave nearly the whole empire to Seleucus, thus reuniting, with the exception of Egypt, the whole of the dominions of Alexander. But this union was of short duration, for within a few weeks of his

Seleucus.

* "That hair-brained prince, after gaining and then losing Macedonia, plunged suddenly into Asia, where he hoped to win by his sword a new dominion. Unable to make any serious impression on the kingdom of Lysimachus, he entered Cilicia, and became engaged in hostilities with Seleucus, who defeated him, took him prisoner, and kept him in a private condition for the rest of his life."—*Rawlinson.*

victory, Seleucus was assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus, an Egyptian prince, brother of Ar-sin'o-e, the wife of Lysimachus. This prince, being prevented from succeeding to the throne of Egypt by his father's selection of another son, Philadelphus, had taken refuge at the court of Lysimachus, and afterward at that of Seleucus, by whom he had been protected.

Ptolemy Ceraunus.

81. The throne of Macedon was occupied by Ptolemy Ceraunus but a short time; for a great migration of the Gauls the same year swept over Thrace and Macedonia, under several leaders named Belgius, Brennus, and others; and Ptolemy rashly opposing their furious onset with his hastily-gathered forces, was defeated, and falling into the hands of his enemies was cruelly put to death (279 B.C.). The Gauls then passed into Greece, and reached Delphi, where they were repulsed with great loss. Some of them afterward settled on the Danube; others, in Thrace; while a third part passed into Asia, and settled in the country called, after them, Ga-la'tia.*

Invasion of the Gauls.

82. After the death of Ptolemy, the throne of Macedon was occupied by Antigonus, the son of Demetrius, surnamed Go-na'tas, from the place of his birth. He reigned till 243 B.C., exercising a severe rule over the Greeks, whose cities he governed by means of petty tyrants appointed by himself. This tyranny led to a noted confederacy, styled in history the "Achæan League," it being in fact the revival of an ancient league which had existed among the

Achæan league.

* "The *invasion of the Gauls* is one of the most interesting events of the post Alexandrine history. It had permanent effects on Eastern Europe and Western Asia, producing among other results the new country of Galatia. . . . . By the end of the year 280 B.C., a large mass of hungry immigrants had accumulated in northern Illyria, and in the regions about mounts Scomius and Scardus. This mass, in 279 B.C., rolled forward in three waves, which took three different directions. One, under Cerethrius, took a north-easterly course against the Triballi and the Thracians; another, under Brennus and Acichorius, proceeded due east against the Pæonians; the third, under a chief named Belgius, marched south-east and fell upon Macedonia. It was this last leader and his troops with whom *Ptolemy Ceraunus* came into contact."—*Rawlinson.*

twelve chief cities of Achaia.* It was soon joined by most of the important states of Greece, including Athens; and, under its wise and patriotic leader, A-ra'tus of Sicyon (*sish'e-on*), acquired very great influence (243 B.C.).

83. At this period, the formation of such confederacies or leagues became a new and striking feature in the affairs of Greece; for the people began to see the result of their many dissensions, and to understand that they could curb the despotism of the Macedonian kings only by uniting their forces. The most important of these confederacies were the Achæan League, already mentioned, and the Æto'lian League. But the Spartans held to themselves. The Ætolian league was a confederation of tribes, which had gradually made themselves masters of Locris, Phocis, Bœotia, and some other states. The Spartans, under their celebrated kings A'gis and Cle-om'e-nes, attempted to regain their ancient simplicity of manners and military hardihood, but without success.†

Ætolian league.

84. Jealousy and dissension among the Greeks prevailed to such an extent as to prevent all efficient resistance against the Macedonian power. Indeed, they were compelled to call in the aid of that very power against the encroachments of each other. Thus Aratus, having been defeated by the Spartans under their king Cleomenes, invoked the assistance

* Rawlinson says: "The old confederacy of the twelve Achæan cities appears to have been dissolved soon after the death of Alexander, by the influence of the Macedonian princes, especially Cassander and Demetrius, about 300 B.C." The revival commenced about 280 B.C., and in abount five years was consummated. It did not, however, assume much importance till the admission of Sicyon into the confederacy, 251 B.C., which gave it partly the character of a general Hellenic union.

† Agis, one of the noblest characters of Spartan history, made an effort to revive the institutions of Lycurgus; and at first met with some success. But he excited great opposition, and his enemies brought about his condemnation and execution (240 B.C.). Agis observing that one of his executioners was moved to tears, said: "Weep not for me; suffering as I do unjustly, I am happier than my murderers." He was the first king of Sparta that was put to death by the ephors.

of Antigonus Do'son,* king of Macedon, by whom Cleomenes was overthrown, and compelled to flee into Egypt. Sparta, which had hitherto remained unconquered, was taken by the Macedonian monarch (221 B.C.). Aratus afterward entered into an alliance with Philip, king of Macedon, in a war against the Ætolians, which lasted till 217 B.C.; but having displeased Philip, he was by the orders of the latter poisoned (213 B.C.).

Sparta taken.

Death of Aratus.

85. Phil-o-pœ'men, sometimes styled "the last of the Greeks," succeeded Aratus in administering the affairs of the Achæan league. He was a man of great talents and virtue. In 207 B.C., he gained a great victory over the Spartans, notwithstanding they were assisted by the Romans; and, in the general assembly of the Greeks, was hailed as the liberator of their country. The Romans, a few years after this, made war upon Philip, king of Macedon, and defeated him in the famous battle of Cyn-os-ceph'a-læ,† in Thessaly (197 B.C.). Philip was then compelled to withdraw his garrisons from the Grecian towns; and, at the ensuing Isthmian games, the independence of Greece was solemnly proclaimed by the Romans.‡ This seemingly generous policy left the Greek states entirely under Roman protection, and by removing all outside pressure gave full scope for internal dissensions. The Achæan and Ætolian leagues were undisturbed, the one holding the other in check.

Philopœmen.

Battle of Cynoscephalæ.

* *Doson* means *about to give*, and was applied to this king on account of his habit of promising but not performing.

† *Cynoscephalæ* means *dogs' heads*, and was given to a range of elevated rocks in Thessaly, resembling in appearance the heads of dogs. It is sometimes written *Cynocephale*.

‡ "Immediately after the conclusion of the treaty, followed the memorable scene at the Isthmian games, when it was announced to all the multitude assembled on that occasion, that the Romans bestowed entire freedom upon all those states of Greece which had been subject to Macedon. The Greeks, unable to read the future, and having as yet had no experience of the ambition of Rome, received this act with the warmest gratitude, and seemed to acknowledge the Romans in the character which they assumed, of protectors and deliverers of Greece."

86. The Ætolians soon afterward became involved in a war with the Romans, and were entirely subdued (190 B.C.). The Achæan league, strengthened by the fall of its great rival, was joined by Sparta, and under Philopœmen acquired very great influence. But the Messenians revolted against its authority; and in an attempt to reduce them to submission, Philopœmen was taken prisoner and barbarously put to death (183 B.C.). Mes-se'ne was, however, captured by the Achæans the next year, and the murderers of Philopœmen were punished. The historian Po-lyb'i-us sums up the character of this illustrious man by saying that "in forty years, during which he played a distinguished part in a democratic community, he never incurred the enmity of the people, though he always spoke with openness and freedom, nor ever courted popular favor by unworthy compliance." He was seventy years of age at the time of his death.

Revolt of the Messenians.

Character of Philopœmen.

87. The Romans, again invading Macedonia, defeated Per'seus, its last king, in the battle of Pyd'na (168 B.C.), and divided the kingdom into tributary states. The Roman general, entering Greece, surrendered many of its cities to the pillage of the soldiers; and no fewer than 150,000 of the inhabitants were captured, and sold as slaves. A few years later, the Romans under Mum'mi-us again invaded Greece, being invited by the Spartans, who had quarreled with the Achæans. The last army of the latter surrendered at Corinth (146 B.C.), and Greece became a Roman province, under the name of Achaia.

Battle of Pydna.

Final conquest of Greece.

II. Syrian Kingdom of the Seleucidæ.

88. This kingdom was founded by Seleucus, surnamed Nicator (the *Conqueror*), in 312 B.C., and lasted about two and a half centuries. It originally consisted of Babylonia

and the adjacent province Su-si-a'na, together with Media and Persia; but afterward was so extended as to embrace all the countries between the Euphrates and the Indus rivers, and from the Indian Ocean to the Iax'-artes River. After the battle of Ipsus it was still further enlarged by the addition of Cappadocia, part of Phrygia, and Upper Syria. The capital was at first a city which Selucus

Extent.

RUINS OF BAALBEC.

had built on the Tigris, and named Seleucia; but it was afterward removed to the newly-founded city of Antioch. The placing of the seat of government so far to the west led to the loss of the eastern provinces, giving rise to the formation of the Parthian and Bactrian kingdoms during the reign of Antiochus II. (261–246 B.C.).* The ancient city of Baalbec, in southern

Antioch.

* "Had Babylon or Seleucia continued the seat of government, the East might probably have been retained; the kingdom of the Parthians might never have grown up. Rome, when she interfered with the affairs of Asia, would have found

Syria (Cœle-Syria),* rose to great splendor at this period, under the Greek name Heliopolis (city of the sun). Its ancient history is obscure; but its ruined temples and other edifices, built of huge blocks of stone, and other architectural remains, attest the magnificence of the city both in its ancient and Greek period. It was situated on the great caravan route between Babylon and Phœnicia.

89. The rupture that subsequently occurred between Seleucus and Lysimachus, ending in the defeat of the latter, gave the whole of Asia Minor to the Syrian kingdom; but the career of Seleucus was soon afterward terminated by the assassin's hand of Ptolemy Ceraunus. His son Antiochus I. succeeded, during whose reign the Gauls overran the country, but were checked for a time by a great defeat which Antiochus inflicted upon them, receiving on that account the surname *So'tēr* (the *Savior*); but he was afterward defeated by them in a great battle near Ephesus, in which he lost his life (261 B.C.).

Antiochus I.

90. A long list of kings succeeded, the particular history of whose reigns it is scarcely necessary to relate. These are called the Seleucidæ (*se-loo'se-de*), or descendants of Seleucus, the founder of the monarchy. Among them Antiochus III., surnamed "The Great," deserves special mention; since his reign, which lasted more than thirty-six years, is, perhaps, the most eventful period of the history of this monarchy. He checked the progress of the Parthians and Bactrians, restoring the extent of his territories toward India, drove the Egyptians out of Asia, and at one time extended his sway over a part of Europe.

Seleucidæ.

Antiochus the Great.

a great Greek empire situated beyond the Euphrates, and so almost inaccessible to her arms; the two civilizations would have coexisted, instead of being superseded the one by the other, and the history of Asia and of the world would have been widely different."—*Rawlinson.*

* Cœle-Syria means the *hollow* Syria, so called from its situation in the valley between the Lib'anus and the Anti-Lib'anus chain of mountains.

91. He, however, became embroiled with the Romans, entering into a union with the Ætolians against them; but, in a great battle at Thermopylæ, the allied forces were signally defeated (191 B.C.). The next year, he suffered another disastrous defeat in the battle of Magnesia, which placed him at the mercy of the Romans. He purchased peace by giving up the northern part of Asia Minor and all his ships of war, and consenting to pay an immense sum of money. The provinces which he ceded were added to the kingdom of Pergamus, thus making it a rival with Syria. This was followed by the revolt of Armenia, which became an independent state. Antiochus died in 187 B.C.

War with the Romans.

Armenia independent.

92. During the subsequent history of this monarchy, there was a continuous series of interferences by the Romans, then rising to the zenith of their power, and extending their conquering arms in all directions. The minor kingdoms, including Pontus, Parthia, Armenia, etc., had risen to positions of importance. In the great war between Mithridates, king of Pontus, and the Romans, Ti-gra'nes, king of Armenia, who then occupied the Syrian throne, had interfered; and this brought upon him the vengeance of the Romans. He was defeated, and compelled to relinquish Syria, which, four years later, was conquered by Pompey the Great, and reduced to a Roman province (65 B.C.).

Later history.

III. Egyptian Kingdom of the Ptolemies.

93. The history of the kingdom of the Ptolemies is the history of the later civilization of the Egyptians. The foundation of Alexandria by the Macedonian conqueror was followed by results of which he could not have dreamed. The transfer of the seat of government from Memphis to the great Alexandrian mart changed the whole character of Egyptian ideas and pursuits. Commerce was encouraged, and intercourse with foreigners was

Foundation.

no longer condemned; while industrial and literary pursuits received an impulse which was unknown in the ancient periods of Egyptian civilization. Alexandria was the center of this wonderful national transformation; indeed, during the period of the Ptolemies, the history of this city is the history of Egypt. Here the court dwelt in all its splendor, and here were congregated the three great elements of the national life—the Greeks, the Jews, and the Egyptians; for the first Ptolemy granted extensive privileges to the Jews of Alexandria.*

Commerce.

Alexandria.

PHAROS.

94. Ptolemy, surnamed *Lagi* (son of Lagus), and also *Soter*, who founded this kingdom, was one of Alexander's greatest generals. On the first division of the empire, he received the administration of the African provinces, and determined to build up there a great naval power. In this he succeeded, and soon extended his authority over Palestine, Phœnicia, and Cœle-Syria. He also took possession of Cyprus; and for a time held Corinth and Sicyon, in Greece. Cyrenaica and Libya were also brought under his sway. He retained the old Egyptian nomes, or divisions,

Ptolemy Lagi.

* He had transported to Alexandria more than 100,000 prisoners from Jerusalem, on his reduction of that city; and, in order to attach them to his government, and reconcile them to their new home, he treated them with special liberality.

placing a governor over each, and causing the Egyptian religion and laws to be respected. In this way he reconciled the people to his rule, but he constantly kept a standing army of Greeks and Macedonians.

Literature, etc.

95. Of all the successors of Alexander, he alone participated in the scientific and literary taste of the great conqueror. He collected an immense library, invited men of learning to take up their residence at his capital, and established the *Museum*, a kind of University, which drew together a vast body of students from all parts.* He also adorned his capital with many splendid edifices; constructed the lofty Pharos, of white marble, four hundred feet high, upon the island which formed the port of the city,† and a mole or causeway connecting the island with the shore (*Hep-ta-sta'-di-um*); also a mausoleum (*So'ma*) to contain the body of Alexander, the Hippodrome, and the temple of Se-ra'pis. He likewise rebuilt the inner chamber of the great temple at Karnak. He died, after a reign of forty years,

Pharos.

Other buildings.

PORT OF ALEXANDRIA

* Alexandria was built upon a grand plan. Including the suburbs, it had a circuit of fifteen miles, and was crossed at right angles by two avenues a hundred feet wide and adorned with temples, colonnades, and palaces. At the intersection of these there was a lofty esplanade, or square, from which could be viewed the entire harbor.

† This edifice was reckoned among the "seven wonders of the world." It was not completed till three years after Ptolemy's death. The light constantly burning on its summit was visible, it is said, for forty miles. The "seven wonders" were the Pyramids of Egypt, the Hanging Garden of Babylon (p. 24), the Temple of Diana at Ephesus, the Statue of Jupiter at Olympia, the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus (p. 134), the Colossus at Rhodes (p. 142), and the Pharos (p. 131) at Alexandria.

at the age of eighty-four (283 B.C.). Ptolemy I. was certainly one of the ablest and most enlightened kings that ever reigned.

96. Ptolemy II., called Philadelphus (because he married his own sister), was also a great patron of literature and science, and did much to advance the commercial prosperity of the country. He reopened the canal connecting the Red Sea with the Nile (originally constructed by Rameses II.), and built the port of Ar-sin'o-e, on the site of the modern Suez. He likewise founded Berenice on the coast of the Red Sea, and opened a high-road from it to a point on the Nile near Thebes (Coptos), forming part of the caravan route by which the merchandise of Arabia, Ethiopia, and India was, for many centuries, carried into Europe.* Ptolemais, on the Red Sea, became the emporium of the ivory trade, which was very valuable at that time. Ptolemy boasted that "no citizen was idle in Alexandria." "Glass-blowing, the weaving of linen, paper-making from the papyrus, and the arts connected with the shipping trade," employed the whole people. Even the blind and lame, it was said, were taught to labor.

Ptolemy Philadelphus.

97. The annual revenue of this king from Egypt alone, exclusive of the tribute in grain, amounted to nearly eighteen millions of dollars. His military force comprised an army of about 250,000 men, besides elephants and war-chariots; and he had a fleet of 1500 vessels. But his efforts in behalf of learning were the chief source of his fame. He augmented vastly the library commenced by his father; invited learned men to his court, and patronized important literary works. Among the latter was

State of the kingdom.

* The vessels of the Alexandrian merchants, starting from Berenice, sailed down the Red Sea, and along the Arabian and Indian coasts to the mouths of the Indus, or sometimes as far as Mangalore, on the Malabar coast. Then, after receiving their cargoes, they returned by the same cautious navigation to Berenice, whence the merchandise was transported by caravans to Coptos on the Nile, and thence floated down to Alexandria.

the translation of the Hebrew Scriptures into Greek,* and the History of Egypt, by Manetho. Philadelphus was also a great patron of the arts, and adorned Alexandria with architectural works of great magnificence. He died after a reign of thirty-eight years (247 B.C.)

Literary works.

98. Under Ptolemy Eu-er'ge-tes (the *Benefactor*), the kingdom attained its greatest extension, comprising Egypt,

MAUSOLEUM AT HALICARNASSUS.

Nubia, the Cyrenaica, part of Ethiopia, a portion of the western coast of Arabia, Palestine, Phœnicia, and Cœle-Syria, Cilicia, Pamphylia, Lycia, Caria, including the famous city of Halicarnas'sus,† and Ionia, besides Cyprus and the

* This was the famous translation called the *Septuagint* (*septuaginta*, seventy), so called from the number of persons engaged in the work. It was prosecuted during several reigns.

† Halicarnassus was the birth-place of Herodotus. It was at first a Dorian city, but afterward conquered by the Persians, though it retained its Greek character. The most noted of its rulers was Mausolus, whose widow Artemisia, after his

Cyclades, and a part of Thrace. [See map IV.] This king was not only a great conqueror, but a patron of learning and art; and many distinguished scholars flourished during his reign. The glorious period of the kingdom of the Ptolemies terminates with Euergetes. A succession of wicked and incapable monarchs occupied the throne during the remaining period of its history, until its final conquest by Rome, during the reign of Queen Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemies (30 B.C.).

Ptolemy Euergetes.

IV. The Minor Kingdoms.

99. In addition to the three great kingdoms of Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt, formed out of the vast dominions of Alexander the Great, there were several smaller states, which played an important part in the history of this period. Chief among these were Pergamus, Bithynia, Paphlagonia, Pontus, and Cappadocia, in Asia Minor; Armenia, Bactria, and Parthia, in the East; and Judea. The last mentioned has already been treated of; and a brief sketch will here be given of the others, in order that the subsequent history may be better understood. [See map IV.]

Minor states.

100. Pergamus was founded by a lieutenant of Lysimachus (283 B.C.), but did not acquire any prominence until the reign of Attalus, who distinguished himself by his alliance with the Romans in the war against Antiochus. This kingdom lasted 150 years, at the end of which its last king, Attalus III., left it, with all its treasures, to the Romans

death (352 B.C.), erected to his memory so magnificent a monument that every similar structure has been called a mausoleum. This monument was ranked among the "seven wonders of the world," on account of its size and artistic beauty. The basement was nearly square, about 400 feet in circumference and 50 feet high, above which rose a structure surrounded with Ionic columns, supporting a pyramid, which was surmounted by a four-horse chariot, containing a statue of Mausolus, about ten feet high. This statue is now in the British Museum. The cut represents the design as restored by means of portions of the building recovered by excavations made within the last twenty-five years.

(133 B.C.). The kings of Pergamus were noted for their attention to literature; and they collected an immense library, which was afterward carried to Alexandria.

Bithynia.

101. Bithynia, even in the Persian period, was partly governed by native princes, and was not completely reduced by Alexander. It continued to be an independent kingdom until the Roman conquests began in the east, and was brought to an end by Nic-o-me'des, its last king, who bequeathed it to the Romans (74 B.C.).

Paphlagonia.

102. Paphlagonia had, like Bithynia, partially achieved its independence during the time of the Persian Empire; but, on the destruction of that monarchy, it was annexed to Pontus. It regained its independence about 200 B.C., but was again seized by Mithrida'tes the Great, of Pontus, and was once more united with that kingdom.

Pontus.

103. Pontus, originally a part of the Persian satrapy of Cappadocia, declared its independence about the middle of the fourth century B.C., and maintained itself as a separate kingdom, under a line of able monarchs, till the time of the long war between the Romans and its great king Mithridates. At the close of that war, the greater part of its dominions was formed into a Roman province.

Cappadocia.

104. Cappadocia, the southern portion of the Persian satrapy of that name, revolted from the sway of the Macedonian rulers, about 315 B.C., and no attempt was made by Antigonus or Seleucus to reduce it to obedience. It came into frequent conflicts with the Roman power, but was not finally subdued till 17 A.D.

Armenia.

105. Armenia, after its revolt from the rule of Antiochus the Great (190 B.C.), was split up into two kingdoms—the Greater and the Lesser Armenia. The former (*Armenia Major*) continued till its conquest by the Romans under Trajan (114 A.D.); the latter had been

many years previously absorbed by Pontus, and conquered, with that kingdom, by the Romans.

106. Bactria assumed the position of a free state in the middle of the third century B.C., and retained its independence until it was overwhelmed by the Parthians and the Scythian hordes from the north during the next century. **Parthia** arose at about the same time as Bactria, during the weak reign of Antiochus II. (about 255 B.C.). The revolt of the Parthians was the uprising of a Turanian people against their foreign rulers; and, from a small beginning, they gradually spread their power over the greater part of Western Asia.* For five centuries the Parthian nation retained its independence and influence, until it finally succumbed again to the Aryan race, as represented in the New Persian Monarchy (226 A.D.). [See maps V. and VII.]

Bactria and Parthia.

SECTION VIII.

GRECIAN CIVILIZATION.

I. EARLY CUSTOMS AND INSTITUTIONS.

107. In the early period of Greek civilization, the people were the willing subjects of their kings; and accounts of the chiefs, warriors, and heroes occupy all the space in the annals or literature of the time. The king, at first, was merely a chief among the patriarchs, or heads of families. Unlike the mighty Babylonian or Egyptian monarchs, he was a simple ruler, without any grand palace, military host, or crowd of slaves. The affluent rejoiced in their extensive flocks and herds, farms and vine-

Early period.

* The Parthians checked the Roman conquests by the signal defeat of Crassus and his army (52 B.C.). Their cavalry of mounted archers was the most formidable known, their arrows being discharged backward with deadly effect while they were retreating with the *speed of the wind.*

yards; the poor were agricultural or pastoral laborers. But this was only the primitive state of things, and among the earliest inhabitants, to whom reference is made in the *myths*, or traditionary legends of that remote period.

108. When the people living near the coasts came into communication with the Phœnician merchants, a new life began; and the energies of the Greeks were aroused to build ships and trade with foreign peoples. They also learned the Phœnician mode of writing, as well as their system of weights and measures, and many other things; and they, moreover, learned to employ their skill in ship-building and navigation for the purpose of piracy and pillage.

Rise of commerce.

109. The poems of Homer give us a pretty clear idea of Greek life and manners during the period of the Trojan war, in the twelfth century B.C. The king was ruler, priest, and judge, presiding over religious ceremonies, and offering up public prayers and sacrifices. He assembled the chiefs in council to discuss the affairs of the community, and to deliberate upon the measures to be adopted; and of these notice was given to the people convened in the market-place (*ag'ora*), but there was no popular vote. The king and his council (*bou'lē*) decided everything. The Homeric period was a time of war and lawless violence. Neither property nor life was respected; and those who resisted the depredations of powerful robbers or pirates were liable to be carried off as slaves. We find, however, that women were treated with more tenderness and respect than by many other of the peoples of that age; and instances of generosity, friendship, and honor abound in the mythical narratives of the time.

Homeric period.

110. The stories of that age about the great kings and heroes that flourished, and performed prodigies of daring and strength, possess a peculiar interest. Such are the accounts given of those who took *part in the* famous siege of Troy—Ag-a-mem'non, king of

Kings and heroes.

My-ce'næ, in Argolis, the commander-in-chief of the Greek forces engaged in that famous war; U-lys'ses, king of the Island of Ithaca; Nes'tor, the sage monarch of Pylus; the valiant Di-o-me'des, of Argos; and the terrible heroes Achilles (*a-kil'lēz*) and Ajax.

111. The ruins of Mycenæ and Ti'ryns, in Argolis, show that their builders possessed a remarkable knowledge of many arts. Some of the walls are made of blocks of stone so enormous that it would seem they could have been moved only by people of gigantic strength. Of these the massive gate of Mycenæ and the arch of Tiryns are examples. Hence, this style of architecture has been called *Cyclopean* (from *Cy'clops*, the name of a giant). At Tiryns there are walls twenty-five feet thick; and both there and at Mycenæ the most wonderful remains have been exhumed by that diligent explorer, Dr. Schliemann, who has also discovered and explored, it is believed, the site of ancient Troy. It is made evident by these researches that the houses of the nobles of this period were adorned with gold, silver, and bronze ornaments of elegant design and workmanship.

Mycenæ and Tiryns.

Schliemann's discoveries.

II. Religion of the Greeks.

112. As a people the Greeks were very religious. They lived under a constant sense of the presence and influence of unseen powers and intelligences, and worshiped them with a variety of rites and ceremonies. All the events and incidents of life were construed as the effects of the interference of their deities, towards whom they constantly maintained a feeling of reverence and awe. The objects of their worship were very numerous, but there were certain deities that received a special adoration, among whom the following twelve were regarded as the great gods and goddesses of Olympus, upon the summit of which mountain, it was conceived, they had *their abode:* Zeus (*zuse*), or Jupiter, as called

his blacksmith-shop in Vesuvius, forging the thunderbolts of Jupiter and the arms and armor of Ares. He was married to Aphrodite.

6. Hermes, son of Zeus, the Mercury of the Romans, was the messenger of the gods. He presided over trade and commerce, and was noted for his cunning and adroitness. He is represented as a strong, beardless youth, with short hair, a winged cap (*pet'asus*), a herald's staff with wings (*caduceus*), twined with snakes, in one hand, and a purse in the other, and having winged sandals on his feet.

7. He're, or Juno, was the sister as well as the wife of Zeus, being the daughter of Kronos. She wears a royal diadem and scepter, and a veil spangled with stars, to indicate her rank as the queen of heaven. She is represented as a woman of beauty, but of great majesty and sternness. She was the patron and protectress of marriage, but the impersonation of jealousy, pride, and revenge.

COLOSSUS OF RHODES. (See note, p. 147.)

8. Athene, or Minerva, called also Pallas, was the daughter of Zeus, springing from his brain, fully armed as the goddess of war and wisdom. She is represented as a stately woman of great beauty, with spear, shield, and helmet. She was the patron goddess of Athens, where the celebrated temple called the Parthenon (see page 165) was constructed in her honor. It contained a magnificent gold and ivory statue of her, carved by Phidias.

9. Artemis, or Diana, was the twin sister of Apollo, and was the goddess of the moon, of night, and of hunting. She is represented as very beautiful, wearing sandals on her feet, a quiver full of arrows, and a bow or spear in her hand.*

* The worship of Diana prevailed more in some parts of colonial Greece than in Greece proper. At Ephesus she had a temple which, on account of its magnificence, was counted among the seven wonders of the world. Here Diana was

10. Aphrodite, or Venus, was the goddess of love and beauty. She is represented with her son Eros, or Cupid. Her worship was very extensive.

11. Hestia, or Vesta, a daughter of Kronos, was the goddess of the home-fire or hearth, and the guardian of family life. She is represented as a virgin standing or sitting, neatly clad, and holding a lamp in one hand and a scepter in the other.

12. Demeter, or Ceres, a sister of Zeus, was the goddess of the fruits of the earth, particularly grain. She is represented as wearing a long robe, with a poppy and ears of wheat in her right hand and a torch in the left. She was the mother of Per-seph'o-ne, or Pros'er-pine, who was stolen from her by Pluto, and carried to Ha'des.

115. These deities were, during the period of Greek paganism, the primary objects of religious worship; but there were several others, some of whom were almost as prominent. Thus the most ancient of all was Gæa (the earth), who was married to her own son Uranos (heaven), with whom commenced the race of the gods. Uranos was the father of the Titans and other monsters, those mighty beings who personified the forces of nature, by which the great geological changes of the earth were effected. Kronos, the father of Zeus, and Oceanus (the ocean) were the sons of Uranos, who had a numerous offspring. All these seem to personify the great physical principles and forces concerned in the operations of nature. Thus from Uranos (the sky) comes the fertility which the earth receives from rain, dew, etc. Similar personifications were also Nyx (night), Hyp'nos (sleep), and O-nei'ros (dream); but in the mythology their actual, not allegorical, personality was recognized.*

Other deities.

represented in a peculiar manner. This temple was set on fire by a man named Heros'tratos, on the night of the birth of Alexander the Great, but was afterwards rebuilt with greater splendor; but not a vestige of it now remains. The worship of Diana was at its height when St. Paul went to Ephesus to preach Christianity.

* "I maintain fully the character of these great divine agents as persons, which is the light in which they presented themselves to the Homeric or Hesiodic audience. To resolve them into mere allegories is unsafe and unprofitable; we then depart from the point of view of the original hearers without acquiring any consistent or philosophical point of view of our own."—*Grote.*

116. The Greeks believed in an unseen world, which they called Ha'des, and which they placed below the surface of the earth. This was the abode of the invisible spirits, or "shades of the dead," in various conditions of bliss or misery, expiating the crimes committed in their earthly lives. Over this realm presided the King of the Dead, Pluto, sometimes called Hades, who was a brother of Zeus. Di-o-ny'-sos, or Bacchus, was also a famous deity, being devoted to wine, feasting, and merriment. His worship was accompanied with many shocking customs. The *Dionysia*, or *Bacchanalia*, were wild ceremonies in which men (Bacchantes) and women (Bacchæ) often abandoned themselves, for days and nights together, to the wildest and most licentious orgies. These rites were permitted only at certain times of the year.

Hades.

Dionysos.

117. There were also deities who performed special services to the greater gods, such as I'ris, He'be, etc.; the Muses, who presided over the different departments of literature, music, and art; the three Graces; besides deified heroes and benefactors of mankind, as Per'seus, Her'cu-les, Æs-cu-la'pi-us, etc.; and monsters, the offspring of the gods, as the Har'pies, the Gor'gons, Cen'taurs, Cer'be-rus, the Dragon of the Hesper'-i-des, etc.

Special deities.

Monsters.

118. All these deities were not universally worshiped, at any rate not in the same degree. Different places were especially devoted to the worship of different gods and goddesses; and some of them were worshiped only in particular places, being unknown in others; as, for instance, marine deities among people connected with the sea. This, however, was the case only with the minor deities; while a belief in the great Olympian gods and goddesses was common to the whole Hellenic nation. Thus all shared in paying honor to Zeus in the great festivals at Olympia; to Demeter in the mysteries of Eleusis; and to Apollo by con-

Local religion.

sulting the oracles; and all had faith in the power of Poseidon, as the ruler of the sea, in Pluto as the king of Hades, in Here as the queen of heaven, in Ares as the god of war, and in Aphrodite as the goddess of love.

119. The worship of the Greeks consisted chiefly of prayers and sacrifices. The former were frequent and universal, being offered up both in the temples and in other public places, in the public assemblies, courts of justice, and in the home-circle, morning and evening before meals. These prayers were usually oral, but were sometimes written on tablets and deposited beside the image of the god. One such tablet reads: "Zeus, our lord, give unto us whatever is good, whether we ask it of thee or not; whatever is evil keep far from us, even if we ask it of thee." The sacrifices were either animals, led to the altar decked with garlands and ribbons, or fruits, cakes, etc. Wine, milk, honey, and oil were usually poured out in *libations.* These sacrifices were offered at regular times, as, for example, at the time of harvest, when a portion of the first-fruits was offered to the gods as a token of thankfulness for blessings received.

Worship.

120. Religious festivals among the Greeks took the place of the Jewish or Christian Sabbath. Of these some were held at certain times; others came at irregular intervals, and often lasted two or three days at a time; while occasions of temple service, sacrifices, and entertainments were quite frequent. During the regular festivals, which were also numerous, there was a general relaxation, all giving way to festivity and merriment.* Among these festivals

Festivals.

* "When the appointed day arrives, the priests open the temples, pay diligent attention to the statues, and nothing is neglected which contributes to the public convenience. The cities, too, are crowded with a conflux of the neighboring inhabitants, assembled to celebrate the festival, some coming on foot, others in ships. At sunrise they enter the temples, in splendid garments, worshiping that divinity to whom the festival is sacred. Every master of a house precedes, bearing frankincense; a servant follows him, leading a victim; and children walk by the side of their parents, some very young, and others of a more advanced age, already feeling the strong influence of the gods. One, having performed his

were the *Dionysia,* in honor of Bacchus, already referred to, the mysteries of E-leu'sis, and the Thes-mo-pho'ri-a in honor of Demeter, the Pan-a-then-a'ic Festival at Athens, in honor of Athene, the patron goddess, and the Daph-ne-pho'ria, of Thebes, sacred to Apollo. Besides these, were the great national festivals of Greece—the O-lym'pic, Pyth'i-an, Isth'-mi-an, and Ne'me-an games, combining worship, festive recreation, and trials of athletic strength, as well as, sometimes, literary and artistic attainment.

THE FOOT-RACE.

121. The Olympic festival was held in honor of Zeus, on the plain of Olympia, in Elis. It took place every fifth year, and drew together an immense assemblage from all parts of Greece. The exercises at the Olympic games consisted of running, wrestling, boxing, chariot-racing, and horse-racing; and to be proclaimed a victor in these games was considered the highest honor a Grecian could attain. None could contend in them but those of the Hellenic race, and all who entered into these contests were obliged to take an oath that they would use no unfair

Olympic festival.

sacrifice, departs; another comes forward to perform his. Numerous prayers are everywhere poured forth, and words of good omen are mutually spoken."—*Libanius.*

means to obtain the victory. The only prize bestowed on the victor was a simple garland of wild olive. These games were the most ancient. They were revived, it is said, by Lycurgus, in 776 B.C.; and hence this date, called the First Olympiad, was afterward employed by the Greeks as their principal chronological era.*

Pythian and Nemean games.

122. The Pythian games were celebrated in honor of Apollo, every fifth year, near Delphi; the Nemean and Isthmian games, once in two years; the former, at Ne'mea, in honor of Zeus; and the latter on the isthmus of Corinth, in honor of Poseidon. In these festivals there were contests in poetry and music, as well as trials of strength. The Eleusinian Mysteries were celebrated every year, and lasted ten days. It was deemed the duty of every Athenian citizen to go to Eleusis at least once during his life for the purpose of being initiated. These ceremonies were nocturnal; and, it is supposed, were intended to impress upon the minds of the initiated the truth of an existence beyond the grave. They were sacred to Demeter, and taught the story of her sorrows in the loss of Proserpine, or Persephone, the stolen bride of the dark king of Hades; but it was a common saying among the Athenians, "In the mysteries no one is sad."

Mysteries.

Oracles.

123. The habit of consulting the oracles for the purpose of learning the will of the gods was another important feature of the Greek religion. The oracles of Apollo were very numerous, but that at Delphi was

* "The origin of this festival is lost in the mythical ages. It is said to have been revived by Iph'itus, king of Elis, and Lycurgus, the Spartan legislator, in the year 776 B.C.; and, accordingly, when the Greeks, at a later time, began to use the Olympic contest as a chronological era, this year was regarded as the first Olympiad. It continued to maintain its celebrity for many centuries after the extinction of Greek freedom; and it was not till A.D. 394 that it was finally abolished by the Emperor Theodosius. It was celebrated at the end of four years, and the interval which elapsed between each celebration was called an Olympiad. The festival was called by the Greeks a *Pentaëteris*, because it was celebrated every *fifth* year, according to the ancient mode of reckoning."—*Smith's History of Greece.*

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Pythian and Nemean games.

Mysteries.

123. The habit of consulting the oracles for the purpose of learning the will of the gods was another important feature of the Greek religion. [illegible] of Apollo were very numerous, but [illegible]

by the Romans, Po-sei'don (Neptune), A-pol'lo, A'rēs (Mars), He-phæs'tos (Vulcan), Her'mēs (Mercury), Hē'rē (Juno), Athe'ne (Minerva), Ar'temis (Diana), Aph-ro-di'te (Venus), Hes'tia (Vesta), De-me'ter (Ceres).

Gods of Olympus.

113. In the mythology of the Greeks, who attributed the characteristics of mortals to their deities, *Zeus* was conceived to be the king of the Gods. He ruled over the divine *ag'ora* when in session upon the heights of Olympus, and kept each of the lesser deities within the special scope of his or her powers. He was the descendant of Kron'os, and himself the progenitor of many of the other deities. Thus Minerva is said to have sprung from his brain. His wife was Here or Juno. It was, according to the Greek conception, Zeus who punished crime and wickedness and rewarded virtue and heroism. He wielded the thunderbolt, and often inflicted swift and unrelenting chastisement upon the wrong-doer. In the early period, such a human personage might satisfy the ideas of an undeveloped race; but when Greece, and more particularly Athens, rose to its wonderful height in intellectual culture, the thinkers and philosophers turned from it to loftier and more spiritual conceptions of a supreme, over-ruling deity.

Zeus.

A Grecian Temple.

114. The following are the characteristics and modes of representation of these several personages:

1. **Zeus**, called the *Cloud-gatherer*, the *Thunderer*, the *Supreme Ruler*, the *Father of gods and man*, was usually represented as seated on a *throne with the thunderbolts* in his right hand, a scepter in his left, and

an eagle by his side, as a symbol of his kingship among the gods. His statue at Olympia, made of gold and ivory, was forty feet in height, and was reckoned among the "seven wonders." It was the work of Phi'di-as, the most celebrated of the Greek sculptors.

2. Poseidon, the Roman Neptune, the brother of Zeus, was the ruler of the sea. He is called by Homer the *Earth-shaker*, for he had control of earth-quakes. He is represented as driving over the sea in a chariot drawn by sea-horses, holding the trident in his hand. His wife was a sea-goddess named Am-phi-tri'te; and various sea-deities, Ne're-ids, Tri'tons, etc., were his attendants.

3. Apollo, the son of Zeus, and god of the sun, called sometimes *Phœbos-Apollo*, or god of light. He was worshiped occasionally as *He'lios*, the sun, particularly in the island of Rhodes, where there was an enormous bronze statue of him—the famous Colossus of Rhodes, reckoned among the Seven Wonders;* though, originally, Helios was a separate divinity. Apollo was also the god of music, song, and poetry; of medicine, and of various earthly blessings; and he was the impersonation of manly beauty, as he is represented by the sculptors. The Apollo Belvidere is an example. Apollo presided over the greatest oracle of antiquity.

ZEUS, OR JUPITER.

4. Ares, son of Zeus and Here, presided over war, like the Roman Mars. Of all the higher gods he was the most fierce and terrible, taking pleasure in slaughter and destruction. Hence he is represented as a warrior with helmet, spear, and shield. The celebrated Areopagus, at Athens, was thought to be his principal seat.

5. Hephæstos, son of Zeus and Here, was the god of fire, corresponding to the Roman Vulcan. He was represented as lame and deformed. He presided over all the arts in which fire is used; and was kept busy in

* This wonderful work was made from the spoils left by Demetrius Poliorcetes when he raised the protracted siege of Rhodes. It was commenced by a sculptor named Chares, who, finding the sum of money appropriated for its construction exhausted before it was half completed, committed suicide. It was, accordingly, finished by another artist. The statue was 105 feet high, and contained a winding staircase reaching to the head. It was thrown down by an earthquake after it had stood 56 years (224 B.C.), and lay prostrate nine centuries, when it was sold to a Jew by the Saracens after their capture of Rhodes. According to the Roman writer Pliny, Rhodes had one hundred colossal statues, though none so large as the Colossus.

his blacksmith-shop in Vesuvius, forging the thunderbolts of Jupiter and the arms and armor of Ares. He was married to Aphrodite.

6. Hermes, son of Zeus, the Mercury of the Romans, was the messenger of the gods. He presided over trade and commerce, and was noted for his cunning and adroitness. He is represented as a strong, beardless youth, with short hair, a winged cap (*pet'asus*), a herald's staff with wings (*caduceus*), twined with snakes, in one hand, and a purse in the other, and having winged sandals on his feet.

7. He're, or Juno, was the sister as well as the wife of Zeus, being the daughter of Kronos. She wears a royal diadem and scepter, and a veil spangled with stars, to indicate her rank as the queen of heaven. She is represented as a woman of beauty, but of great majesty and sternness. She was the patron and protectress of marriage, but the impersonation of jealousy, pride, and revenge.

COLOSSUS OF RHODES. (See note, p. 147.)

8. Athene, or Minerva, called also Pallas, was the daughter of Zeus, springing from his brain, fully armed as the goddess of war and wisdom. She is represented as a stately woman of great beauty, with spear, shield, and helmet. She was the patron goddess of Athens, where the celebrated temple called the Parthenon (see page 165) was constructed in her honor. It contained a magnificent gold and ivory statue of her, carved by Phidias.

9. Artemis, or Diana, was the twin sister of Apollo, and was the goddess of the moon, of night, and of hunting. She is represented as very beautiful, wearing sandals on her feet, a quiver full of arrows, and a bow or spear in her hand.*

* The worship of Diana prevailed more in some parts of colonial Greece than in Greece proper. At Ephesus she had a temple which, on account of its magnificence, was counted among the seven wonders of the world. Here Diana was

10. Aphrodite, or Venus, was the goddess of love and beauty. She is represented with her son Eros, or Cupid. Her worship was very extensive.

11. Hestia, or Vesta, a daughter of Kronos, was the goddess of the home-fire or hearth, and the guardian of family life. She is represented as a virgin standing or sitting, neatly clad, and holding a lamp in one hand and a scepter in the other.

12. Demeter, or Ceres, a sister of Zeus, was the goddess of the fruits of the earth, particularly grain. She is represented as wearing a long robe, with a poppy and ears of wheat in her right hand and a torch in the left. She was the mother of Per-seph'o-ne, or Pros'er-pine, who was stolen from her by Pluto, and carried to Ha'des.

115. These deities were, during the period of Greek paganism, the primary objects of religious worship; but there were several others, some of whom were almost as prominent. Thus the most ancient of all was Gæa (the earth), who was married to her own son Uranos (heaven), with whom commenced the race of the gods. Uranos was the father of the Titans and other monsters, those mighty beings who personified the forces of nature, by which the great geological changes of the earth were effected. Kronos, the father of Zeus, and Oceanus (the ocean) were the sons of Uranos, who had a numerous offspring. All these seem to personify the great physical principles and forces concerned in the operations of nature. Thus from Uranos (the sky) comes the fertility which the earth receives from rain, dew, etc. Similar personifications were also Nyx (night), Hyp'nos (sleep), and O-nei'ros (dream); but in the mythology their actual, not allegorical, personality was recognized.*

Other deities.

represented in a peculiar manner. This temple was set on fire by a man named Heros'tratos, on the night of the birth of Alexander the Great, but was afterwards rebuilt with greater splendor; but not a vestige of it now remains. The worship of Diana was at its height when St. Paul went to Ephesus to preach Christianity.

* "I maintain fully the character of these great divine agents as persons, which is the light in which they presented themselves to the Homeric or Hesiodic audience. To resolve them into mere allegories is unsafe and unprofitable; we then depart from the point of view of the original hearers without acquiring any consistent or philosophical point of view of our own."—*Grote.*

116. The Greeks believed in an unseen world, which they called Ha'des, and which they placed below the surface of the earth. This was the abode of the invisible spirits, or "shades of the dead," in various conditions of bliss or misery, expiating the crimes committed in their earthly lives. Over this realm presided the King of the Dead, Pluto, sometimes called Hades, who was a brother of Zeus. Di-o-ny'-sos, or Bacchus, was also a famous deity, being devoted to wine, feasting, and merriment. His worship was accompanied with many shocking customs. The *Dionysia,* or *Bacchanalia,* were wild ceremonies in which men (Bacchantes) and women (Bacchæ) often abandoned themselves, for days and nights together, to the wildest and most licentious orgies. These rites were permitted only at certain times of the year.

Hades.

Dionysos.

117. There were also deities who performed special services to the greater gods, such as I'ris, He'be, etc.; the Muses, who presided over the different departments of literature, music, and art; the three Graces; besides deified heroes and benefactors of mankind, as Per'seus, Her'cu-les, Æs-cu-la'pi-us, etc.; and monsters, the offspring of the gods, as the Har'pies, the Gor'gons, Cen'taurs, Cer'be-rus, the Dragon of the Hesper'-i-des, etc.

Special deities.

Monsters.

118. All these deities were not universally worshiped, at any rate not in the same degree. Different places were especially devoted to the worship of different gods and goddesses; and some of them were worshiped only in particular places, being unknown in others; as, for instance, marine deities among people connected with the sea. This, however, was the case only with the minor deities; while a belief in the great Olympian gods and goddesses was common to the whole Hellenic nation. Thus all shared in paying honor to Zeus in the great festivals at Olympia; to Demeter in the mysteries of Eleusis; and to Apollo by con-

Local religion.

sulting the oracles; and all had faith in the power of Poseidon, as the ruler of the sea, in Pluto as the king of Hades, in Here as the queen of heaven, in Ares as the god of war, and in Aphrodite as the goddess of love.

119. The worship of the Greeks consisted chiefly of prayers and sacrifices. The former were frequent and universal, being offered up both in the temples and in other public places, in the public assemblies, courts of justice, and in the home-circle, morning and evening before meals. These prayers were usually oral, but were sometimes written on tablets and deposited beside the image of the god. One such tablet reads: "Zeus, our lord, give unto us whatever is good, whether we ask it of thee or not; whatever is evil keep far from us, even if we ask it of thee." The sacrifices were either animals, led to the altar decked with garlands and ribbons, or fruits, cakes, etc. Wine, milk, honey, and oil were usually poured out in *libations.* These sacrifices were offered at regular times, as, for example, at the time of harvest, when a portion of the first-fruits was offered to the gods as a token of thankfulness for blessings received.

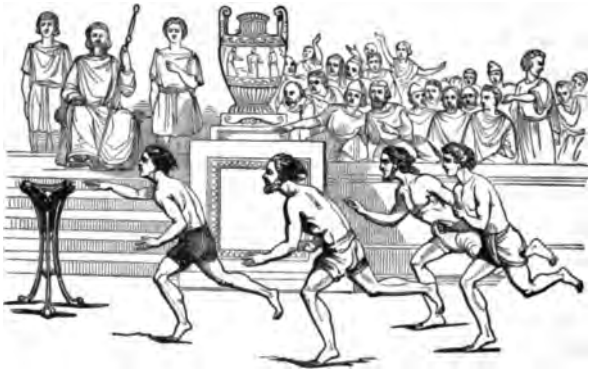
Worship.

120. Religious festivals among the Greeks took the place of the Jewish or Christian Sabbath. Of these some were held at certain times; others came at irregular intervals, and often lasted two or three days at a time; while occasions of temple service, sacrifices, and entertainments were quite frequent. During the regular festivals, which were also numerous, there was a general relaxation, all giving way to festivity and merriment.* Among these festivals

Festivals.

* "When the appointed day arrives, the priests open the temples, pay diligent attention to the statues, and nothing is neglected which contributes to the public convenience. The cities, too, are crowded with a conflux of the neighboring inhabitants, assembled to celebrate the festival, some coming on foot, others in ships. At sunrise they enter the temples, in splendid garments, worshiping that divinity to whom the festival is sacred. Every master of a house precedes, bearing frankincense; a servant follows him, leading a victim; and children walk by the side of their parents, some very young, and others of a more advanced age, already feeling the strong influence of the gods. One, having performed his

were the *Dionysia*, in honor of Bacchus, already referred to, the mysteries of E-leu'sis, and the Thes-mo-pho'ri-a in honor of Demeter, the Pan-a-then-a'ic Festival at Athens, in honor of Athene, the patron goddess, and the Daph-ne-pho'ria, of Thebes, sacred to Apollo. Besides these, were the great national festivals of Greece—the O-lym'pic, Pyth'i-an, Isth'-mi-an, and Ne'me-an games, combining worship, festive recreation, and trials of athletic strength, as well as, sometimes, literary and artistic attainment.



THE FOOT-RACE.

121. The Olympic festival was held in honor of Zeus, on the plain of Olympia, in Elis. It took place every fifth year, and drew together an immense assemblage from all parts of Greece. The exercises at the Olympic games consisted of running, wrestling, boxing, chariot-racing, and horse-racing; and to be proclaimed a victor in these games was considered the highest honor a Grecian could attain. None could contend in them but those of the Hellenic race, and all who entered into these contests were obliged to take an oath that they would use no unfair

Olympic festival.

sacrifice, departs; another comes forward to perform his. Numerous prayers are everywhere poured forth, and words of good omen are mutually spoken."—*Libanius.*

means to obtain the victory. The only prize bestowed on the victor was a simple garland of wild olive. These games were the most ancient. They were revived, it is said, by Lycurgus, in 776 B.C.; and hence this date, called the First Olympiad, was afterward employed by the Greeks as their principal chronological era.*

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Pythian and Nemean games.

Mysteries.

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Oracles.

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the most famous, being greatly venerated in all parts of Greece, and sometimes consulted by foreign nations, as the Lydians, the Phrygians, and the Romans. In the middle of the Delphic temple there was a small aperture in the ground, over which was placed the seat (tripod) of the Pythia, a virgin priestess; and a sulphurous gas or vapor arising from the opening acted upon her brain, putting her in a kind of trance or ecstatic condition, during which she gave expression to what was deemed the answer of the god, always in hexameter verse. There were oracles of Zeus at Olympia and Do-do'na, also in Libya (Jupiter Ammon); and of other gods and heroes at different places.*

124. The Greeks also sought to ascertain the will of the gods, or to obtain a knowledge of future events, not only by means of the oracles, but by certain kinds of divination, through interpreting dreams, observing the flight of birds, the entrails of sacrificed animals, the direction of the flames and smoke from the altar, etc. These were auguries of good or evil as declared by the regularly appointed soothsayers. Great attention was also paid to omens, as earthquakes, eclipses, and other unusual phenomena of nature; and many of the commonest occurrences of life, if unavoidable, were looked upon as indicating the future. Even the act of sneezing, among these superstitious people, was sometimes deemed to present an indication of the will of the gods.

III. Greek Literature.

FIRST OR EARLY PERIOD.

125. No literature is more complete or more interesting and valuable than that of the Greeks. The genius or intel-

* The responses of the oracles were usually ambiguous. Thus when Crœsus, the rich king of Lydia, consulted the oracle before entering upon the war with Cyrus, the reply was that if he crossed a certain river he would destroy a great empire. He construed this to mean the Persian Empire; but, as it turned out, it was Lydia itself; for he crossed the river, and was utterly defeated and his kingdom finally overthrown.

lectual greatness of this people displayed itself in every variety of production. The epic poems attributed to Homer—the Iliad and the Odyssey—are still unrivaled among works of their class. Little is known of this illustrious poet. He was, most probably, one of the Ionic and Æolic minstrels of the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, the brightness of whose genius eclipsed the others; and hence his name has been given to these wonderful poems, collected many centuries after they were composed. To the same age belongs He'si-od, a native of Bœotia, whose poems—*The-og'o-ny* and *Works and Days*—tell us of the birth and origin of the gods and goddesses of the Greek mythology.

Homer.

Hesiod.

HOMER.

126. At a later period (in the seventh century B.C.), when the art of music had made progress, we find lyric poetry beginning to flourish, among the earliest to cultivate it being Ar-chil'o-chus (about 700 B.C.), who, it is said, was the inventor of the *elegy*, a form of emotional poetry. It was about this time that Tyr-tæ'us, by his soul-stirring elegies, inspired the Spartans to deeds of patriotism and valor, during the Messenian war, and a little later A-ri'on flourished, of whom Herodotus tells the wonderful story that he was carried to Corinth on the back of a dolphin, which was charmed by his beautiful melodies, for poets sang and played, as well as composed verses in those days. Al-cæ'us and Sappho (*saf'fo*), both of the island of Lesbos, were a little later (about 600 B.C.). The latter was the greatest of all the Greek poetesses, but only fragments of her poetry are extant. To these names must be added A-na'cre-on, of Ionia, whose odes possess unrivaled grace and sweetness.

Lyric poetry.

127. It was during this early period that the Seven Sages of Greece flourished, and also many of the wisest of the philosophers. Among the latter were (1) Thales of Miletus (born 640 B.C.), the founder of the Ionic school, and celebrated for his researches in astronomy and geometry; (2) Xenophanes of Elea (a Greek colony in southern Italy), who founded the E-le-at'ic school, the doctrines of which were afterward developed by Par-men'i-des and Zeno; (3) Py-thag'o-ras, of Samos (born about 580 B.C.), one of the greatest of the Greek philosophers, who founded at Croton, in Italy, the Pythagorean school, the doctrines of which rapidly spread over the whole of Magna Græcia. Pythagoras taught the doctrine of the "transmigration of souls," which he seems to have learned in his travels in Egypt and Babylonia. He also taught, it is said, the rotundity of the earth, and the central position of the sun in the solar system. His moral teachings were pure and elevated, and exercised a very wide and powerful influence.

Seven Sages

SECOND OR MIDDLE PERIOD.

128. The second or middle period of Greek literature commences at about the opening of the Persian war. Lyric poetry reached its highest development in the poems of Si-mon'i-des and Pindar. The former carried off the prize for an elegy on the fallen heroes of Marathon; and he afterward celebrated in beautiful verses those who gave their lives to their country at Thermopylæ, Salamis, and Platæa. Simonides died in 477 B.C., at the age of 80. Pindar, of Thebes, in Bœotia, was somewhat younger. His odes are much admired for their sublimity; hence he has been styled the "Theban eagle."

Lyric poetry.

129. Greek tragedy, the rude beginnings of which had been made by Thespis, about the middle of the sixth century, was carried to a point of great excellence by Æschylus (*es'ke-lus*), who may be regarded as

Tragedy.

the founder of the tragic art, which Eurip'i-des and Soph'o-cles subsequently advanced to so high a degree of perfection and beauty. Among the prose writers of this period, Herodotus, of Halicarnassus, called the "Father of History," claims the first place. In his famous history he embodied all the results of his extensive travels in Egypt and the East; and it is related that he read his nine books to the assembled throng at the great Olympian festival; and that the delighted audience gave the names of the nine muses to his books, and paid him honors superior to those decreed to the victors in the games.* Herodotus was born in 484 B.C., and lived to the end of the century.

Herodotus.

130. Thu-cyd'i-des merits the praise of being a far more philosophic historian than Herodotus. His history of the Peloponnesian war is written in a chaste and dignified style, and displays a remarkable insight in regard to the causes of events and the inner motives of men's actions. He was born in 471 B.C., being contemporaneous with Herodotus. Xenophon was a little later, as he lived to the middle of the fourth century. He also wrote history as well as philosophy. His most noted works are *Memorabil'ia* (memorable things) of Socrates, a defense of his great master; the *Cyropædi'a*, an account of the life of Cyrus the Great, a kind of historical romance, designed to illustrate the institutions of the early Persians; the *Anab'asis* (ascent), or expedition of the younger Cyrus, one of the most charming histories in existence; and the *Helle'nica*, a continuation of the history of Thucydides. The style of Xenophon, clear, natural, and graceful, won for him the title of the "Attic bee."

Thucydides.

Xenophon.

* It is said that Thucydides, afterward so distinguished as an historian, then a boy, was present at the festival with his father, and was so affected by the recital of Herodotus that he shed tears, upon which the great historian congratulated the father upon having a son who displayed so early such a zeal for knowledge and literature.

131. Plato (429–347 B.C.) stands pre-eminent among the philosophers and writers of his time, for the extreme beauty of his style and the purity and spirituality of his teachings. He was the founder of the Academic school, so called from the grove of Acade'mus, near Athens, where he delivered his lectures. His doctrines are presented in the form of dialogues, in which the chief speaker is Socrates. Thus, while he imparted his own views, he illustrated the philosophic teachings of his great master, an account of whom has already been given.

Plato.

132. Contemporaneous with Socrates and Plato, were the following philosophers: An-ax-ag'o-ras, an intimate friend of Pericles, who taught mathematics and astronomy; Xen-oc'ra-tes, an eminent pupil of Plato; Di-og'-e-nes, a famous cynic, who taught and practiced a supreme contempt for all the usages, conveniences, and proprieties of life, living, it is said, for some time in a tub; Ar-is-tip'pus, a disciple of Socrates, who founded what was called the Cyrenaic school, teaching that the highest good consists in rational enjoyment; and De-moc'ri-tus, sometimes called the "laughing philosopher," because he treated the follies and vices of mankind with ridicule. He taught that the physical universe consists of atoms, and that nature, space, and motion are eternal.

Contemporary philosophers.

133. Epicurus (342–270 B.C.), the founder of the Epicurean school, expanded the doctrine of Aristippus, teaching that happiness consists in pleasure derived from the practice of virtue; while his great contemporary, Zeno, founded the school of the Stoics, who were noted for their simplicity and severity of manners, their fortitude, and the rigidness of their moral principles. Zeno selected for his school a place called the *Porch* (*stoa*), and hence his followers were called the "men of the porch." This was perhaps the most influential, in a *moral* point of view, of all the schools of practical philosophy.

Epicurus.

Zeno.

The most illustrious of the writers on the Stoic philosophy were Ep-ic-te'tus and the Roman emperor, Marcus Aurelius.

134. The Peripatetic school, which Aristotle founded (384–322 B.C.), exerted the greatest intellectual influence, not only upon his own age, but for nearly two thousand years afterward. His works covered a vast field of research, embracing the consideration of natural as well as moral philosophy, besides history, rhetoric, and criticism. His greatest claim to credit is for his logical system, which, as the art of reasoning, exerted great influence, and is still accepted and used as a true analysis of the process of argumentation. Aristotle lectured in a place at Athens called the Lyce'um; and from his habit of walking up and down while delivering his lectures, his school was called the Peripatetic (from *peripatein*, to walk about). Aristotle was selected by Philip of Macedon to be the preceptor of his illustrious son Alexander, and the monarch afterward liberally assisted him in the prosecution of his researches.

Aristotle.

135. The Greek drama embraced both tragedy and comedy. The former, as seen in the works of the two great masters, Sophocles and Euripides, was designed to illustrate not only certain phases of human life and passion, but the relation of these to the overruling power of the gods. These works were confined within much more strict limitations as to form and plot than the modern tragedy of Shakespeare and others. Athenian comedy, like tragedy, derived its origin from the celebration of the Dionysia. Its greatest masters were Ar-is-toph'a-nes (born at Athens 432 B.C.), who ridiculed Socrates in his comedies, and Menander (born 342 B.C.), who wrote more than one hundred comedies, upon which those of the Roman dramatists Plautus and Terence were afterward based.

Drama.

136. Oratory, which bears an intimate relation to literature, was cultivated with wonderful success, especially by the Athenians, among whom schools of rhetoric and eloquence

were early established. The oratory of Pericles has already been referred to; but it was in the period succeeding him that eloquence reached its greatest height. Among the most noted orators were Lys'i-as, I-soc'ra-tes, Æs-chi'nes, and Demosthenes; but the last mentioned eclipsed all the others. By the moderns, who have only read his orations, as well as by the ancients who heard them delivered, Demosthenes has been pronounced the greatest orator that ever lived.

Oratory.

THIRD OR LATER PERIOD.

137. During this period, Alexandria became the seat of learning; and the patronage of the early Ptolemies drew to that city the most distinguished writers from all parts of Greece. Among these may be mentioned The-oc'ri-tus, the most charming of pastoral poets, a native of Syracuse. Mos'chus, also of Syracuse, and Bi'on, of Smyrna, were his contemporaries and imitators. Their poems are very graceful and beautiful. The hymns and elegies of Cal-lim'a-chus, who also flourished at Alexandria, were widely admired. Ap-ol-lo'ni-us Rho-dius, the author of a noted poem on the Argonautic expedition, in the Homeric style, also belongs to this period.

Poetry.

DEMOSTHENES.

138. At Alexandria flourished, moreover, the schools of the grammarians and critics Aristophanes and Ar-is-tar'chus, the former being the chief librarian during the reigns of the second and third Ptolemy. Eu'clid, the famous mathematician, author of the elements of geometry, still used as a text-book, flourished at Alexan-

Grammar and criticism.

dria, as also his successor Apollonius, who wrote on the conic sections, besides many other mathematicians. Ptolemy, the greatest astronomer and geographer of antiquity, also lived in Alexandria about the middle of the second century A.D. He was the author of the famous Ptolemaic system of astronomy, which placed the earth in the center of the universe, a theory that continued to be maintained until quite modern times.

Science.

139. Prominent among the prose writers of this period should be mentioned Polyb'ius (204–122 B.C.), who lived in Rome, and wrote a history of the Roman republic; Dionysius, of Halicarnassus, who also wrote on Roman history and on criticism; Di-o-do'rus Siculus (the Sicilian), the author of a general history; Plutarch, a native of Bœotia, whose *Lives* continue to be read with pleasure; and Josephus, the Jewish historian, born in Jerusalem, 37 A.D. To these may be added Stra'bo, the geographer; Lu'cian, the satirist of the Greek mythology; and Ga'len, the noted physician, whose writings form an epoch in the science of medicine. Galen was born in Pergamus, but studied in Alexandria, Corinth, and Smyrna. He visited Rome several times. Most of these belong to the latter part of this period.

Prose writers.

140. Greek literature does not wholly terminate at this point, but extends to the fall of the Greek Empire (1453 A.D.). A sketch of it during this period will be given in connection with the history of the Middle Ages, in another part of this work. The Greek language, it may here be observed, was not only the vehicle of pagan civilization and culture, but that by which the great truths of Christ's life and teachings were imparted to mankind in the early Christian period. Three at least of the Gospels were written in Greek, as well as most of the other books of the New Testament. Many of the Fathers of the early Church also wrote in the Greek language. The translation of the Hebrew Scriptures into Greek (the Septuagint), by the Seventy,

Later literature.

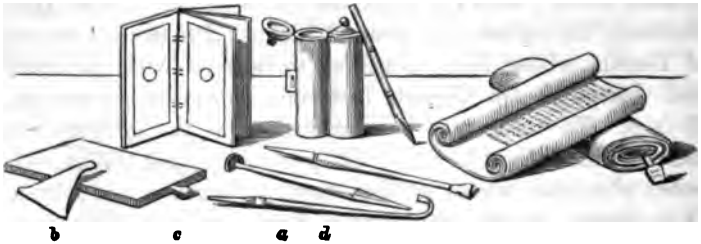
has already been referred to in connection with the history of Alexandria under the Ptolemies.

141. Books and Writing. The books of the ancient Greeks were very different from those of modern times.

Books.

They were written by hand on long sheets of paper, made from the bark of the Egyptian plant papyrus. These sheets were rolled on a staff; hence the name *volume*, a roll. The title of the book was usually written on a tag, suspended to the roll. Sometimes parchment was used instead of paper. A reed sharpened and split at the point served as a pen; and the ink was a black or red pigment, kept in inkstands of

Pens and ink.



b *c* *a* *d*

WRITING MATERIALS OF THE GREEKS.

various forms. Letters, memoranda, etc., were written upon wax-covered tablets (*c*) by means of a sharp instrument, of ivory or metal, called a *stylus*, which usually had a flattened end for erasing (*a*, *d*); but sometimes a broad erasing instrument (*b*) was used.

Tablets and stylus.

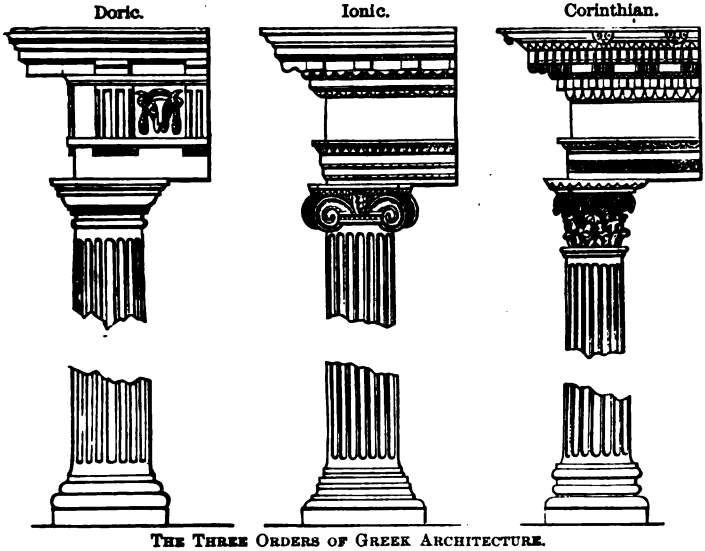
IV. GREEK ART.

142. Greek art dates back beyond the Homeric period, as is evident from the remains found at Mycenæ and other places, which show that statuary, drawing, designing, and painting n ust have already made considerable progress. But it was d iring the period immediately *succeeding the* Persian War that Greek art reached its culmi-

Early art.

nation, in those masterpieces of architecture and sculpture which the highest genius of the modern world has scarcely approached, much less surpassed.* It was in these two arts that the Greeks especially excelled; for, although they had some great painters, the highest achievements in painting, as well as in music, were left to subsequent peoples and times.

Architecture and sculpture.



THE THREE ORDERS OF GREEK ARCHITECTURE.

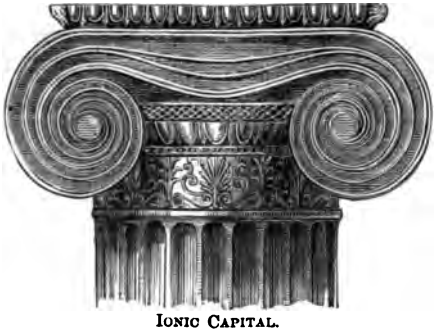
143. There were three styles or *orders* of architecture during the classic period, which are still recognized by builders: the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian, the difference

* Speaking of the Parthenon, at Athens, Ferguson says in his *History of Architecture:* "In its own class it is undoubtedly the most beautiful building in the world. It is true it has neither the dimensions nor the wondrous expression of power and eternity inherent in Egyptian temples; nor has it the variety and poetry of the Gothic cathedral; but for intellectual beauty, for perfection of proportion, for beauty of detail, and for the exquisite perception of the highest and most recondite principles of art ever applied to architecture, it stands utterly alone and unrivaled—the glory of Greece and the shame of the rest of the world."

depending chiefly on the character of the column. Of these the Doric is the oldest, being, as its name implies, the style used by the ancient Dorians. It was plain and massive, but of graceful proportions. The column is usually without a base, and the capital destitute of ornament. The finest example of this style is the famous Parthenon (House of the Virgin), a magnificent temple of Athene, erected under the supervision of Phidias, on the Acropolis at Athens. The remains of the great temples at Pæstum, in southern Italy, present some fine specimens of the ancient Doric style. The great temple at Delphi, and that of Juno, at Samos, the largest temple which Herodotus ever saw, were built in this style. The latter was about 350 feet in length and 190 in breadth.

Orders of architecture.

Doric.



IONIC CAPITAL.

144. The Ionic derived its name from the Greek cities in Ionia, where it was first used. Its characteristics are lightness, gracefulness, and tastefulness of ornament. The shaft of the column is slender, and rests upon a base; and the capital is adorned by spiral volutes. The great temple of Diana, at Ephesus, commenced about 600 B.C., was of this order. Its length was 425 feet, and its breadth 220 feet. The Corinthian is really a modification of the Ionic, and abounds in graceful ornamentation. Its capital is said to have been suggested to the mind of Cal-lim'a-chus, the celebrated sculptor, by seeing a basket covered by a tile and overgrown by the leaves of an acanthus. The earliest building in this style is the monument of Ly-sic'ra-tes, sometimes called the Lantern of Demosthenes,

Ionic.

Corinthian.

built in 335 B.C. The Corinthian style was usually selected for buildings requiring peculiar elegance and delicacy, as temples dedicated to Venus, etc.

145. Sculpture, or statuary, like architecture, owed its origin to religion. The first statues were those of the gods. These were at first very rude and uncouth. The adornment of the temples by figures in relief preceded the sculpture of detached figures. We have an example of this in the two lions that still exist over the gateway of the ancient city of Mycenæ. It was in the period of

Sculpture.

THE PARTHENON, RESTORED.

Athenian greatness that this beautiful art reached its perfection, under the great masters, Phidias, Po-ly-cle'tus, My'ron, and Prax-it'i-les. It was Phidias that executed the ornamental statuary for the Parthenon, and carved the great statue of Athene placed within that splendid temple. The Olympian Zeus at Elis was another of his works.

146. Painting among the Greeks was of later development than sculpture, but never reached the same degree of excellence. The Greek paintings were in water colors or in wax, as oil colors were not known. Contemporary with Phidias at Athens was Pol-yg-no'tus, the first Grecian painter of fame. He devoted himself to the

Painting.

adornment of many of the public buildings of Athens; the Painted Porch (*Pœcilé Stoa*), where Zeno afterward taught, was among his works. Under Zeux'is and Par-rha'si-us, painting reached a far higher degree of advancement, as the following interesting incident related of those two artists shows. In a trial of skill, Zeuxis painted a bunch of grapes so naturally that the birds came and picked at them; but Parrhasius said, "Now draw aside the curtain that covers my picture;" and on attempting to do so, Zeuxis found that the curtain was the picture, and at once conceded the palm of superiority to his rival. "I paint very slowly," said Zeuxis at one time, "but I paint for eternity." The greatest painter of the time of Alexander was A-pel'les, who had the exclusive privilege of painting the Macedonian monarch's portrait. The most beautiful work of Apelles was the picture of Venus rising from the sea (*Aphrodite An-a-dy-om'e-ne*).*

A Grecian Vase.

146. The various arts of design were carried by the Greeks to the greatest degree of perfection. In all these they showed a taste of the highest delicacy and refinement, in many things affording a standard for all subsequent times. Not only in architecture and sculpture was Greek art illustrated, but in the internal decorations of their

Arts of design.

* Apelles was not ashamed to learn from the humblest critics in things which they understood; and he used to exhibit his pictures before his house, and conceal himself so as to hear the remarks of those passing by. On one occasion a shoemaker found fault with the shoes of one of his figures; and noticing afterward that it was corrected, ventured to make further criticisms, when Apelles rushed out, and bade the "cobbler to stick to his last." Hence the maxim: *Ne sutor supra crepidam.*

houses, their elaborately painted walls and ceilings, their ornamental tiling, their tastefully constructed furniture, their beautiful vases, and other vessels both for ornament and use, and their jewelry (see page 170). In all these they showed a genius for the invention of beautiful forms which has never been surpassed.

V. Social Life and Manners.

147. In considering the social life of the Greeks in general, the Athenians may be taken as a model, with but few qualifications. The Spartan institutions, which were totally dissimilar, have been already described. The difference between the Greek civilization and our own, in regard to morals and manners, was the effect chiefly of their widely different ideas in respect to religion, their peculiar physical and intellectual character, and the traditions of their ancestors. Their religious notions were strong, as has been already stated, but were not capable of elevating them to a high degree of spirituality in their daily lives, or of inspiring them with an exalted morality, or unselfish regard for others. The institution of slavery was also a fruitful source of corruption in the manners and institutions of this refined people.

Greek civilization.

148. In the better class of dwelling-houses, there was a division into two sets of apartments—for the men and the women respectively. Each set was built in the form of a square with an open court in the interior, usually paved and sometimes ornamented with a fountain in the center. The rooms were entered from porticoes round this square. The street door opened into a wide lobby leading directly into the men's court, across which a passage led into the women's court. Attached to the women's apartments were halls for spinning, weaving, and other household work. The heating was by fireplaces, and by the side of the hearth were the images of the household

Dwelling-houses.

gods; and at the street door there was usually an image as well as an altar.* The chief peculiarity in respect to the furniture was the use of sofas or couches, instead of chairs, when at meals. Glass was not used; and the dishes and other vessels were of pottery, metal, or wood. Mirrors were usually made of polished bronze. Lamps of various forms were used, some of very beautiful designs.

Meals.

149. The Greeks, as a rule, had but two meals a day, one in the morning and the other toward evening, which was the principal meal. They were not luxurious eaters; bread made of wheat, flour, or barley was used as a portion of each meal, with flesh or fish, the former always used sparingly, with various kinds of vegetables. Banquets were served with fish of various kinds, also flesh and fowl, followed by sweetmeats and fruits, such as olives, figs, nuts, and fresh fruits in season. At the *symposium* that succeeded the meal, wine was copiously drunk.† Conversation, music, or games amused the company. They used no knives or forks; hence, the food was served cut up into pieces, which were taken up with the fingers. Convivial feasts were frequent; and of these the

Food.

* These household gods were the *daimones*, corresponding to the Lares and Penates of the Romans. "The Lares were the spirits of the ancestors of each family, who exercised after death a protecting power over the well-being and prosperity of the family to which they had in life belonged. The place of honor beside the hearth was occupied by the statue of the Lar of the house, who was supposed to have been the founder of the family. This statue was the object of profound veneration, and was honored on all occasions by every member of the family. The first act of a bride on entering her new abode was to do homage to the Lar." The Penates were deities selected by each family for special protection and guardianship. If, for example, a child was born during the festival of Vesta, that goddess was assumed as its special guardian. If a youth excelled in business talent, Mercury was often selected as his guardian deity; if in music, Apollo; and so on. These then became the patron deities of the household, and their images adorned the hearth. There were also evil spirits, called Lemures, who were believed to haunt their former abodes, their crimes depriving them of rest. To propitiate these, the festival called *Lemura'lia* was instituted by the Romans.

† The wine was not used as drawn from the flasks, being mixed with water in a large vessel, like a punch-bowl. A person, called the *symposiarch*, was selected by the company to regulate the drinking, and prevent excess.

symposium formed the principal part. From these dinner and drinking parties the women of the house were excluded; but music and dancing were performed in the presence of the guests by hired artists, often females. The company were expected to be dressed in their most elegant attire, with wreaths of flowers on their heads; and, during the feast, they reclined on couches, before which small tables were placed. Plato and Xenophon have left in their works (the *Symposia*) vivid descriptions of these banquets.

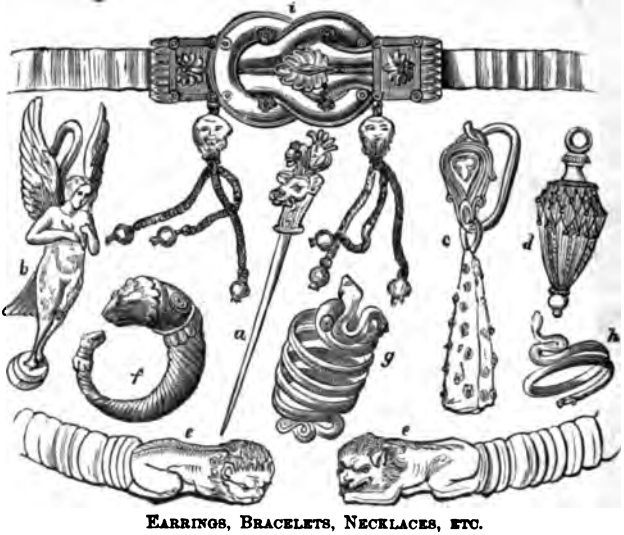
Feasts.

ATHENIAN FEMALE COSTUME.

150. The costume of males and females, among the Greeks, did not differ as much as with us. It consisted essentially of an inner and outer covering. The former was a loose dress (*chiton*) of woolen or linen, worn short by men, but extending down to the feet of women. As the outer covering of the latter did not entirely envelop the body, being something like a shawl, this under-dress was often highly ornamented, and consisted of the richest material. The outer garment of men consisted of a large piece of cloth, worn in graceful folds, as seen in the statues, being so coiled on the shoulders as to leave the right arm free. This was called by the Greeks the *hi-mat'i-on;* by the Romans, the *pal'lium.* It was often fringed or otherwise ornamented. Usually it was thrown over the left shoulder, then drawn behind the back and under the right arm, and then thrown over the left shoulder again.

Costume.

Sometimes it was fastened on the right shoulder by a button or brooch; it was then called the *chlam'ys*, or scarf. The women had a great variety of modes of dressing their hair. Coverings for the feet were worn only out of doors. These varied from the simple sandal to a full covering, like the modern gaiter or short boot. The ladies adorned themselves with jewelry of various forms, often of very beautiful and artistic designs.*



EARRINGS, BRACELETS, NECKLACES, ETC.

151. Gymnasiums, or places for exercise, were provided at the public expense. These included provision for the physical and also the intellectual training of youth. The exercises consisted of running, leaping, throwing the javelin or the discus, or quoit, shooting with the bow and arrow, wrestling, and boxing. The object was to cultivate physical vigor, and thus to make the

Gymnasiums.

* The cut represents articles of this description found in various parts of Greece: hair-pin (*a*), ear-rings and pendant (*b*, *c*, *d*, *f*), armlets (*g*, *h*), necklaces (*e*, *i*). The [illegible] of the coiled serpent was a favorite one for armlets as well as for rings [illegible]r the lower limbs.

citizens able-bodied soldiers, when their military services were needed. But in the later years, the gymnasiums degenerated into mere lounging places, or pleasure grounds. The porticoes were the resort of philosophers, rhetoricians, and sophists (learned men), who discussed in public moral and metaphysical questions, which interested so much the Greek mind.

152. Boys were generally instructed in schools; but those of wealthy parents had also a *pædagogue*, or private tutor, whose office it was to watch over them when out of school. He was rather a guardian than a teacher, and was usually selected from the slaves. The branches taught included the reading of the poets, from whose works passages were committed to memory; also music, under which the Greeks comprehended singing, playing on the lyre, and the recitation of poetical compositions. At the age of eighteen or twenty, the sons of the affluent often attended lectures on philosophy, oratory, etc., in the Lyceum, Academy, or other institution.*

Education.

153. Women were not treated by the Greeks as entitled to the consideration due to the other sex, being accorded only a position between freemen and slaves. They received only a scanty education at home, and were expected to devote themselves to weaving, spinning, and other household employments. They were confined to their own apartments, being permitted but rarely to leave the house. They had the management of the servants, who were slaves; and were expected to take care of the sick. Marriages were usually arranged by the parents, and dowries were always expected. There was, however, a class of women,

Treatment of females.

† Aristophanes represents, in one of his plays, "all the boys of Athens going in crowds to their schools early in the morning, and not even deterred by the heaviest snow. He describes the strict supervision and discipline under which they were kept, how every gesture was watched, and every transgression strictly punished. He also lands the graceful gymnastic exercises, and the fine bodily condition which this training had produced."—*Mahaffy's Social Life in Greece.*

called *He-tæ'ræ*, principally foreigners, who lived in a state of greater social freedom, occupying houses of their own, and receiving guests and visitors of both sexes. They were usually distinguished not only for personal beauty and grace of manners, but for literary genius and culture, and are spoken of as the "most witty and brilliant talkers at Athens." To this class belonged the celebrated Aspasia, the friend and afterward the wife of Pericles.

155. Slavery was a recognized institution; and slaves were very numerous and of all classes and grades, including domestic servants, agricultural laborers, and artisans. Slaves were employed by the government to execute the public works. These slaves were generally foreigners, or, as the Greeks called them, barbarians. Many Asiatic and Thracian tribes sold their children into slavery; and the buying and selling of slaves was a regular business at Athens and other parts of Greece. Children born of slave women were invariably held as slaves. Menial slaves were almost wholly at the mercy of their masters and mistresses. Slaves were sometimes tortured to compel them to make confession of their guilt, or the guilt of their masters.*

Slavery.

156. The industrial arts and occupations of the Greeks were numerous and complicated. They worked the mines of silver, copper, and iron, and obtained marble and other building stone from the quarries. Their manufacturing industries included spinning and weaving, pottery, the making of arms and armor, gold and silver ornaments, hardware of various kinds, furniture, etc. All these employed large numbers of people; besides whom were the shopkeepers, tradesmen, merchants, and agriculturists. The wholesale trade of Athens was at the seaport, Piræus; but

Industrial arts.

* "It was not the custom to torture slaves who gave evidence to a fact, but only if they denied any knowledge, or appeared to suppress it in the interest of their master. On the other hand, it was common enough to torture female slaves, and also free men."—*Mahaffy's Social Life in Greece.*

most of the every-day retail business was carried on in the town-markets.*

157. The Greeks were very fond of music, but they do not seem to have made much progress in it, either as a science or an art. They played on stringed instruments, such as the harp and lyre, and simple wind instruments, as the double and simple pipe; but these were too poor to afford much melody. Among the Athenians, particularly, musical accomplishments were very highly prized; and as a source of entertainment music was generally cultivated. At feasts and social gatherings, female musicians were hired to heighten the enjoyment of the guests. In the cut we have a representation of performers on the lyre, the cithara, and a kind of harp (*trigōnon*).†

Music.

* The following is a picturesque description of a market scene at Athens:—"All the wants of the day, from barley-groats up to the most dainty fish, from garlic to the incense of the gods; clear pure oil, and the most exquisite ointments; fresh-made cheese, and the sweet honey of the bees of Hymettus; cooks ready to be hired; slaves, male and female, on sale—all and several were to be found in abundance at their customary stands in the market-place. There were others who went about crying their wares; while, every now and then, a public crier crossed the grounds, announcing with stentorian voice the arrival of some goods to be sold, or the sale of some house, or perhaps a reward for the apprehension of a robber or runaway slave. Slaves of both sexes, as well as freemen, kept walking up and down, bargaining, and inspecting the stalls in search of their daily requirements."—*Becker's Charicles.*

† The word *music* is here used in its modern sense; but with the Greeks it had a much wider meaning. "It comprehended," says Grote, "everything appertaining to the Nine Muses; not merely learning the use of the lyre, or how to bear part in a chorus, but also the hearing, learning, and repeating of poetical compositions, as well as the practice of exact and elegant pronunciation; which latter accomplishment, in a language like the Greek, must have been far more difficult to acquire than it is in any modern European language."

Funeral rites.

158. The Greeks were very attentive to the rites of sepul ture; for when the remains were unburied, it wa thought the soul wandered in Hades without rest not being permitted to cross the river Styx into the realm of happiness.* Hence, immediately after death, a small coi (*obolus*) was placed in the mouth of the deceased to pay th ferryman Charon for taking his shade across the dark river On the day of the funeral, the body was carried out, ac companied by the relatives and friends as mourners, witl hired women making lamentations, and a chorus of flute players. The remains were either burned or buried; and i the latter case graves, vaults, or tombs were used for the fina disposition of the body. For the burning of the body, piles o wood called *puræ* (pyres) were used, and oils and perfume were thrown into the flames. When the pyre had burne down, the remains were extinguished with wine, and th bones were collected, washed with wine and oil, and placed i urns. The latter were sometimes made of gold. The bodie not burned were buried in coffins usually made of baked cla or earthenware. Vases and various other articles were depos ited in the grave with the deceased. At certain times, sacrific was performed at the tomb, and flowers were brought to deco rate the grave.

* Thus in Homer's *Iliad*, the phantom of Patroclus appears to his friend Achille in a vision, and entreats burial:

"Let my pale corse the rites of burial know,
And give me entrance to the realms below:
Till then the spirit finds no resting-place,
But here and there the unbodied specters chase
The vagrant dead around the dark abode,
Forbid to cross the irremeable flood."—*Pope's Homer.*

In the regions of Hades, there were four great rivers, three of which had to b crossed by all the spirits of the dead,—Ach'eron (sorrow), Cocy'tus (lamentation), an Styx (intense darkness), the sacred stream which flowed nine times round thes realms. On the opposite bank of Styx, was the tribunal of Minos, the supreme judg before whom all had to appear, and who, after listening to a confession of thei earthly deeds, pronounced sentence upon them. The happy spirits passed into Ely sium, a blissful region filled with everything to charm the senses and please th imagination; the wicked were condemned to abide in the gloomy realms of despai

Review Outline.

Chronology.	
First Period, from the earliest times to 776 B.C.	The history of Greece during the first period is legendary or traditional. It refers to the Pelasgi and other early races, the remains of whose architecture still exist. It abounds in stories of mythical heroes, such as Hercules, Theseus, etc.; and hence is called the Heroic Age. There are many events, such as the Argonautic Expedition and the Trojan War, which the poets used as the basis of their poems. Foreign colonies were planted in different parts of Greece during this early period—of the Egyptians, under Cecrops, at Athens; of the Phœnicians, under Cadmus, in Bœotia; of the Phrygians, under Pelops, in the Peloponnesus.
Troy burned, 1184 B.C.	
Cecrops at Athens, 1550 B.C.	
Cadmus in Bœotia, 1492 B.C.	
Pelops, 1300 B.C.	
Migrations of the tribes, 1200 B.C.	To this succeeded the great migratory movement, which resulted in the settlement of the Dorians in the Peloponnesus, the Ionians in Attica, and the establishment of the Æolian, Ionian, and Dorian colonies in Asia Minor. During the later Dorian migration Codrus, the last king of Athens, sacrificed his life for his country.
Dorian migration, 1124 B.C.	
Second Period, from 776 B.C. to 500 B.C.	At the second period the authentic history of Greece begins—at the date of the first Olympiad (776 B.C.). The principal events of this period were:
About 776 B.C.	The legislation of Lycurgus at Sparta.
Messenian wars, 743–723 B.C. 685–668 B.C.	The first and second Messenian wars, between Sparta and Messenia.
624 B.C.	After centuries of anarchy, Draco attempted to construct a code of laws for Athens.
594 B.C.	The laws of Solon—the institution of Archons.
560–510 B.C.	The usurpation of Pisistratus and his sons Hippias and Hipparchus.
510 B.C.	The administration of Cleisthenes, and the institution of the Ostracism.

650–500 B.C.	*Age of Despots* in Greece.
625–585 B.C.	Periander, tyrant of Corinth.
THIRD PERIOD,	
500–449 B.C.	Revolt of the Ionian colonies against Persia. This revolt lasted six years, and ended in the taking of Miletus, and the subjugation of the colonies.
485 B.C.	
Persian War,	
492–449 B.C.	The aid given by Athens to the Ionians drew down the wrath of Darius upon all Greece. This led to the naval expedition of Mardonius, which was wrecked at Mt. Athos; and the expedition of Datis and Artaphernes, which was defeated by the Athenians in the battle of Marathon.
492 B.C.	
490 B.C.	
490–480 B.C.	Themistocles and Aristides became rivals for popular favor at Athens during this period, but Aristides was banished by the Ostracism.
483 B.C.	
	Xerxes, the successor of Darius, attacked Greece with an immense fleet and army. The fleet was defeated at Salamis. The army was checked at Thermopylæ, by Leonidas; and was defeated at Platea, by Pausanias. The latter was afterward found guilty of treason and put to death. This led to the formation of an Ionian league, called the "Confederacy of Delos," under the leadership of Athens, and directed by Aristides. It lasted about 70 years.
480 B.C.	
479 B.C.	
471 B.C.	
	Themistocles, being implicated in the treason of Pausanias, was driven into exile.
471 B.C.	
	The glorious career of Aristides was terminated by his death.
468 B.C.	
	The government of Athens was for a few years administered by Cimon, the son of Miltiades; but Pericles, having caused his banishment, assumed the control of affairs, which he retained till his death (429 B.C.).
461 B.C.	
Age of Pericles,	
461–429 B.C.	
449 B.C.	Termination of the Persian war, after an Athenian victory at Cyprus.
FOURTH PERIOD,	
449–358 B.C.	Rebellion of Bœotia, and defeat of the Athenians at Coroneia.
447 B.C.	
	The rivalship between Athens and Sparta finally brought on the *Peloponnesian War*—between the Ionian and Dorian states, led by Athens and
431–404 B.C.	

	Sparta respectively. It lasted twenty-seven years, the chief events being:
429 B.C.	The plague at Athens, and death of Pericles.
413 B.C.	The defeat of Nicias at Syracuse.
405 B.C.	The destruction of the Athenian fleet under Conon, by Lysander, at Ægospotamos.
404 B.C.	Final defeat of Athens; capture of the city.
403 B.C.	The magistrates called the *Thirty Tyrants* were expelled by Thrasybulus.
Retreat of the Ten Thousand, 401 B.C.	The expedition of Cyrus the Younger and the famous retreat of the Ten Thousand, under Xenophon, was an episode of this period.
399 B.C.	Socrates was put to death at Athens on account of his religious opinions.
Battle of Coronea, 394 B.C.	Agesilaus, a Spartan king and general, defended his country against a league formed by Athens, Thebes, and other states, their combined forces being defeated at Coronea; but the same year Athens regained her naval supremacy by the victory of Conon over the Spartan fleet, at Cnidus.
Peace of Antalcidas, 387 B.C.	A few years after, the Spartans negotiated a disgraceful treaty with the Persians through their emissary Antalcidas.
Battle of Leuctra, 371 B.C.	In a war between Thebes and Sparta, Epaminondas gained two glorious victories, one at Leuctra, and the other at Mantinea, in which he was mortally wounded.
Battle of Mantinea, 362 B.C.	
FIFTH PERIOD, 338–301 B.C.	
Social war, 358–355 B.C.	A revolt of the Athenian allies brought on the *Social War*, which was followed by the *Sacred War*, in which Philip of Macedon was enabled to interfere in the affairs of Greece; and subsequently defeated the forces of Thebes and Athens at Chæronea.
Sacred war, 357–346 B.C.	
Battle of Chæronea, 338 B.C.	
Death of Philip, 336 B.C.	After the death of Philip, Alexander ascended the throne of Macedonia; and having crushed all opposition in Greece, set out to conquer Persia.
Battle of Granicus, 334 B.C.	He defeated the Persians at the Granicus, then in the battle of Issus; and finally at Arbela, which decided the war, and gave Persia to the Macedonian conqueror. He extended his conquests further to the East, crossing the Indus; but his
Of Issus, 333 B.C.	
Of Arbela, 331 B.C.	

soldiers, worn out with their toils, compelled him to return.

323 B.C. Alexander died at Babylon, at the age of 32.

Battle of Lamia, 322 B.C. This was followed by the Lamian war, caused by the attempt of Athens to regain her freedom; but it was closed by the defeat of Leosthenes, the Athenian general, at Lamia.

Battle of Ipsus, 301 B.C. A series of conflicts ensued among the "successors of Alexander," terminating for a while in the battle of Ipsus, after which Greece and Macedonia were assigned to Cassander; Egypt to Ptolemy; the greatest part of Asia Minor to Lysimachus; and the eastern part, from the Syrian coast to the Euphrates, to Seleucus. Subsequently, Lysimachus conquered Macedonia, but being afterward defeated by Seleucus, the latter obtained nearly the whole of Alexander's empire, except Egypt, which was under the rule of Ptolemy.

SIXTH PERIOD, 301–146 B.C.

Achæan League, under Aratus, 243 B.C. The Grecian states formed several leagues to defend themselves against the tyranny of the Macedonian kings, the chief of these being the Achæan and Ætolian leagues. The former, under Aratus and Philopœmen, gained great glory. Philopœmen was barbarously put to death by the Messenians.

Victory of Philopœmen over the Spartans and the Romans, 207 B.C.

183 B.C.

197 B.C. Philip, king of Macedon, was defeated by the Romans, in the famous battle of Cynoscephalæ; and, some years afterward, the latter gained a victory over Perseus, the last king of Macedon, in the battle of Pydna. Macedonia then became a Roman province; and, twenty-two years later, Greece was finally subdued by the Romans.

168 B.C.

146 B.C.

Kingdom of the Seleucidæ, 312–65 B.C. The kingdom of the Seleucidæ was founded by Seleucus I. (*Nicator*), and lasted about two and a half centuries. Its capital was Antioch. Its chief monarchs, after Seleucus I., were Antiochus I. (*Soter*) and Antiochus III. (the Great). There were, in the whole dynasty, twenty kings.

Kingdom of the Ptolemies, 323–30 B.C. The kingdom of the Ptolemies founded by Ptolemy *Lagi*, one of Alexander's generals, lasted under the same line of monarchs for nearly three cen-

	turies. Alexandria was enlarged and enriched, and became the greatest emporium in the world. Science, art, and literature flourished under the Ptolemies. The Ptolemaic kingdom of Egypt became a Roman province after Cleopatra, the last queen, with Antony, had been defeated by the Romans, under Octavius, at Actium.
Death of Cleopatra, 30 B.C.	
	The *minor kingdoms* formed out of the Macedonian Empire were the following:
283–133 B.C.	*Pergamus*, founded by an officer of Lysimachus; became a Roman province.
400–74 B.C.	*Bithynia*, bequeathed to the Romans.
400–102 B.C.	*Paphlagonia*, conquered by Mithridates.
363–63 B.C.	*Pontus*, independent till absorbed by the Romans.
315 B.C.–17 A.D.	*Cappadocia*, formed after revolt from Macedonia; conquered by the Romans.
190 B.C.–114 A.D.	*Armenia*, revolted from Antiochus the Great; conquered by the Romans.
255–160 B.C.	*Bactria*, satrapy of Persia; a province of the Syrian Empire; then independent, till overwhelmed by the Parthians.
255 B.C.–226 A.D.	*Parthia*, formed by revolt from the Syrian Empire; conquered by the later Persians.

Topical Review.

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In what period did they live?
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With what events were they connected?

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No. 6.

MARE ADRIATICUM
ILLYRICUM
MARE TYRRHENUM
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GALLIA
Cispadana
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Dertona
Genua
Parma
Bononia
Ravenna
Luna
Luca
Pistoria
Faesulae
Florentia
Arimimum
Sarsina
Sena Gallica
Ancona
Sentinum
Anxinum
Volaterrae
Arretium
Cortona
Clusium
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Tarquinii
Falerii
Sutrium
Caere
Ardea
Antium
Teanum Sidicinum
Aurunci
Aesis
Metaurus F.
Rubico F.
Arnus F.
Tiber F.
Umbro F.
Telamon
Argentarius
Igilium
Mariana
Aleria
Urcinium
Marianum
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Interamnium
Hatria
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M. Sacer
Volsinii
Volsinii
Cimini
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Cumae
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Latium
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Ligustica
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MAP OF ITALY
(See page 108 ¶ 9)
Sebellian Nations
Greek Colonies
Phoenician Colonies
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Long E. from Paris
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CHAPTER III.

ROMAN HISTORY.

SECTION I.

EARLY HISTORY OF ITALY.

1. The people who dwelt in Italy at the earliest times to which our knowledge extends consisted principally of five races: the Li-gu'ri-ans, the Venetians, the I-a-pyg'-ians, the Italians proper, and the E-trus'cans. Of these the first and second were weak and comparatively unimportant, since they exerted but little influence upon the general history of Italy. The Iapygians, who were probably among the earliest settlers, inhabited the extreme south-eastern part of the peninsula, called Mes-sa'pi-a by the Greeks, by the Romans Ca-la'bri-a. They were, as their language denotes, nearly related to the Greeks, and probably emigrated from Greece into southern Italy.

Early races.

Iapygians.

2. The Italians proper occupied nearly the whole of central Italy. They appear to have come from the north, and to have pressed back the semi-Greek settlers of the southern portion of the peninsula. They comprised two branch stocks—the Latins and the Umbro-Sabel'-lians, the latter including the Um'brians, Sa'bines, Sam-ni'tes, Sabellians, Os'cans, and other divisions or offshoots. The

Italians.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What was the situation of: LATIUM? ETRURIA? UMBRIA? CALABRIA? CAMPANIA? Territory of the SABINES? CISALPINE GAUL? Rubicon R.? Metaurus R.? Tiber R.? Rome? Ostia? Tusculum? Clusium? Veii? Brundisium? Neapolis (Naples)? Cumæ? Syracuse? Messana? Agrigentum? Rhegium? Croton? Sybaris? Tarentum? Beneventum?

Latins settled near the Tiber, and, being hemmed in by surrounding races, were confined to a plain, about 700 square miles in extent, between the Tiber and the spurs of the Apennines on the north, and the Alban hills on the south. The Umbrians entered Italy later than the Latins, and settled first in E-tru'ria, from which they spread over the eastern part of the peninsula. [See map VI.]

Latins.

3. The Etruscans, or Etrurians, were at first located to the north of the Po, but afterward occupied the plain of that river, where they had a confederacy of twelve cities. Later, they entered Etruria, pressing the Umbrians to the east, or subduing them; and there they formed a second confederacy, also of twelve members. These people, unlike the Iapygians and the Italians, were probably of Turanian origin. They were a stout, muscular race, short in stature, with large heads and thick arms, presenting a marked contrast to the graceful, slender Italians. They had many superstitions, and were given to divination and magic; but they made rapid advancement in civilization, and became the best architects of all the races in Italy.* They also showed great energy in maritime enterprise, as well as skill in the mechanic arts.†

Etruscans.

4. The Romans belonged to the Italic race. They nourished the tradition in after times that they were the descendants of the Trojan prince Æ-ne'as, who escaped from the conflagration of Troy, and sailed with a colony to Italy, landing on the shores of Latium (*lah'she-um*), the seat of the Latin race at that time. It is this legend that forms the plot of Virgil's beautiful poem, the Æ-ne'id. But for this there is no more historical evidence than there is for the

Romans.

* The invention of the arch, in its proper construction, has been attributed to the Etruscans, as also the composition of an order of architecture called the Tuscan, a species of simple Doric. The early Romans employed Etruscan architects in erecting their buildings.

† The Tuscans or Etruscans, the most powerful nation in the north, differed in [illegible] completely from all the other inhabitants.

story of the vestal Rhe'a Silvia, the daughter of a Latin king, and her twins Rom'u-lus and Re'mus, whose father was Mars. This legend states that Rhea was put to death for having violated her vow of chastity, and that her two infant sons were cast out to die, but that they were suckled by a she-wolf, until they were found by a shepherd, who carried them home and educated them; and that, on arriving at manhood, they discovered their true origin, restored their grandfather to the throne of Alba Longa, from which he had been dethroned by his brother, and afterward founded a new city, which was called Rome, after Romulus.*

Romulus and Remus.

Synopsis of the Races of Italy.

1. ARYAN OR INDO-EUROPEAN.

- I. Iapygian.
- II. Italian.
  - 1. Latins.
  - 2. Umbro-Sabellians.
    - *a.* Umbrians.
    - *b.* Sabellians [Samnites, Oscans, Sabines, Marsi, Volsci, etc.].

2. TURANIAN (?).

- I. Etruscans.

* "When Romulus and Remus grew up, the herdsmen of the Palatine Hill chanced to have a quarrel with the herdsmen of Numitor [the dethroned king], who stalled their cattle on the hill Aventinus. Numitor's herdsmen laid an ambush, and Remus fell into it, and was taken and carried off to Alba. But when the young man was brought before Numitor, he was struck with his noble air and bearing, and asked him who he was. And when Remus told him of his birth, and how he had been saved from death, together with his brother, Numitor marveled, and thought whether this might not be his own daughter's [Rhea's] child. In the mean while, Faustulus [the adopted father] and Romulus hastened to Alba to deliver Remus; and by the help of the young men of the Palatine Hill, who had been used to follow him and his brother, Romulus took the city, and Amulius [the usurper] was killed; and Numitor was made king, and owned Romulus and Remus to be born of his own blood."—*Arnold's History of Rome.*

SECTION II.

THE ROMAN KINGDOM.

5. Setting aside the old legend regarding the foundati of Rome, as unsupported by any historical evidence, we m conclude, from what history tells us, that there was a sett ment made by one of the Latin tribes, called t Ram'nians, or Romans, on the Pal'a-tine hill, the left bank of the Tiber, about eighteen mil from its mouth (753 B.C.). This settlement appears to ha been soon joined by two of the other Latin cantons,* and fro its advantageous situation it rapidly increased in influence a numbers. Subordinate at first to Alba Longa (the long whi city), the metropolis of the Latin confederacy, it finally, aft a long contest, subdued and destroyed that ancient city, a assumed the headship of Latium.

Foundation of Rome.

6. The government of Rome, at first, was like that of the other Latin cantons. All the heads of families parti pated on an equal footing in the rights of ci zenship. By these the king was chosen for li and he had the privilege of selecting a council of elders (*pa tres*), called the senate. In the public assemblies (*comit curiata*), convened by the king, the citizens enacted laws, a gave their assent to war or peace.† The transfer of people

Government.

* Among the Latins, "the households were united, by ties of blood or by ne ness of locality, into clans; and the householders' dwellings formed the cl villages, which were united, and all formed a *canton*. Each canton had a comm center, where justice was administered and the markets held. Around this c tral town, which was always situated on an elevated and easily defensible positi suburbs grew up, which formed the nucleus of the early Latin towns. The differe Latin cantons united into a league, with Alba Longa at their head, known as t league of the thirty Latin cities."—*Leighton's History of Rome.*

† The citizens were divided into three tribes, each tribe into ten *curiæ*, ea *curia* into ten *gentes*, and each *gens* into ten households. According to this sche there were 30 *curiæ*, 300 *gentes*, and 3000 households, which thus formed the co munity, or *populus*. Every household was required to furnish one foot-soldier, a each *gens* a horseman; so that the army originally consisted of 3000 foot-soldi *and 300 cavalry*. The senate consisted of three hundred members, one for each ge

Rome from the conquered cities of Latium affected the population by introducing a new element, consisting of those who had no political rights or privileges. This formed the distinction between the *patricians*, or nobles, and the *plebeians*, or common people. It was the former that constituted the state; since they exercised all the political power, possessed the honors, and rendered service in the army. There were also clients and slaves, the former being bound to their patrician patrons; the latter, held in absolute bondage, and bought and sold at pleasure.

Patricians and plebeians.

7. The history of Rome as a kingdom is traditionary, for most of the records of its early history were destroyed when the Gauls, several centuries later, burned the city. Seven kings, it is said, ruled in succession, including Romulus, the reputed founder, who organized the government of the city; but even their names seem to be uncertain. Nu'ma Pom-pil'i-us, the second king, was a Sabine, and, according to the traditions, was the founder of the religious institutions of the Romans. He reformed the calendar, and erected a temple to Janus, at the entrance of the forum. The gates of this temple were closed only in times of peace.

VICINITY OF ROME.

Kings.

Numa.

8. Tul'lus Hos-til'i-us, the third king, was noted for the wars which he waged against the neighboring cities. He it was who broke the power of the Latins, and destroyed Alba. An'cus Martius (*mar'she-us*), the fourth king, the grandson of Numa, gained additional victories over the Latins and extended his conquests into Etruria. He built the port of Ostia, fortified the Janiculan hill, and constructed the first bridge across the Tiber. He also settled several thousand of the conquered Latins on

Tullus Hostilius.

the Aventine hill at Rome, thus laying the foundation of the plebeian order. An Etruscan dynasty succeeded, the first of which, Tarquinius Priscus (Tarquin the Elder), the fifth king of Rome, was noted for the public buildings and other works which he caused to be constructed. Among these were the great sewer (*clo-a'ca maxima*), the great circus (*Circus Maximus*), and the temple of Jupiter Capitoli'nus. The latter, however, he did not live to finish. He also defeated the Sabines and the Etruscans.

Tarquin the Elder.

9. The second of this dynasty, and the sixth king of Rome, was Ser'vi-us Tul'li-us, a bold and adroit usurper. He made important changes in the government, establishing a new assembly (*comitia centuria'ta*), in which all free Romans had a voice. In this the people were divided into *centuries*, each century having one vote; but the number of centuries constituting a class depended on the amount of property possessed. This arrangement, while admitting all, at least seemingly, to a share in the government, gave the preponderance of power to the wealthy classes. Servius also built a wall inclosing the entire city, including all the "seven hills," over which the city had gradually spread. This inclosure was about seven miles in circuit, and sufficed for many centuries.

Servius Tullius.

CLOACA MAXIMA.
(In its present condition, 1881.)

10. Tar-quin'i-us Su-per'bus (Tarquin the Proud), the seventh king, ruled with great arrogance, particularly toward the patricians; and finally, in consequence of an infamous crime committed by his son Sextus, an insurrection broke

out, and he and his family were driven out of the city. This terminated the kingdom (509 B.C.). Thus, traditionally, the period of the kingdom was 244 years, the average duration of each reign being about 35 years. This has been pointed out as a most improbable circumstance, and as sufficient, of itself, to show the unreliable character of the early history.*

Tarquin the Proud.

TRADITIONAL CHRONOLOGY OF THE KINGS.

	B.C.	Length of Reign.
Romulus	753–716	37 years.
(Interregnum of one year.)		
Numa Pompilius	715–676	39 "
(Interregnum of two years.)		
Tullus Hostilius	674–642	32 "
Ancus Martius	642–618	24 "
L. Tarquinius Priscus	618–578	40 "
Servius Tullius	578–534	44 "
Tarquinius Superbus	534–509	25 "

SECTION III.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

I. PERIOD OF INTERNAL STRUGGLES.

11. The history of the Roman Republic, succeeding the regal period, for more than a century and a half is occupied chiefly with an account of the struggles between the Patri-

* "The early history of Rome is indeed far more poetical than anything else in Latin literature. The loves of the Vestal and the God of War, the cradle laid among the reeds of the Tiber, the fig-tree, the she-wolf, the shepherd's cabin, the recognition, the fratricide, the rape of the Sabines, the death of Tarpeia, the fall of Hostius Hostilius, the struggle of Metius Curtius through the marsh, the women rushing with torn raiment and disheveled hair between their fathers and their husbands, the nightly meetings of Numa and the Nymph by the well in the sacred grove, the fight of the three Romans and the three Albans, the purchase of the Sibylline books, the crime of Tullia, the simulated madness of Brutus, the ambigu-

cian and Plebeian orders, and of the growth of the Roman constitution and laws. After the expulsion of the kings, two magistrates, called consuls, were annually elected, to whom was intrusted the chief executive authority. The duties and powers of the consuls were similar to those of the kings, and for nearly 150 years they were chosen exclusively from the patricians. As civil officers their power was almost absolute, each ruling by turns; and they were the legally appointed generals of the army in time of war. Junius Brutus and Col-la-ti'nus were the first to hold the office of consuls. The former, often called the Elder Brutus, was a remarkable character. He was a nephew of Tarquin; but seeing his relatives put to death by order of that jealous tyrant, he feigned to be half-witted, so that he might seem to be of no consequence. After the crime of Sextus, he threw off the mask, and by his bold and earnest eloquence incited the people to expel the hateful king.*

Consuls.

Junius Brutus.

ous reply of the Delphian oracle to the Tarquins, the wrongs of Lucretia, the heroic actions of Horatius Cocles, of Scævola, and of Cœlia, the battle of Regillus won by the aid of Castor and Pollux, the fall of Cremera, the touching story of Coriolanus, the still more touching story of Virginia, the wild legend about the draining of the Alban lake, the combat between Valerius Corvus and the gigantic Gaul, are among the many instances which will at once suggest themselves to every reader."—*Macaulay.*

* The following incident of the legendary history of the period illustrates the stern virtue of this remarkable man: "Then King Tarquinius sent to Rome to ask for all the goods that had belonged to him; and the Senate, after a while, decreed that the goods should be given back. But those whom he had sent to Rome to ask for his goods, had meetings with many young men of noble birth, and a plot was laid to bring back King Tarquinius. But a slave happened to overhear them talking together, and when he knew that the letters were to be given to the messengers of Tarquinius, he went and told all that he had heard to Brutus and to Publius Valerius. Then they came and seized the young men and their letters, and so the plot was broken up. Then Brutus bade the lictors to bind his own two sons, Titus and Tiberius, together with the others, and to scourge them with rods according to the law. And after they had been scourged, the lictors struck off their heads with their axes, before the eyes of their father; and Brutus neither stirred from his seat, nor turned away his eyes from the sight; yet men saw, as they looked on him, that his heart was grieving inwardly over his children. Then they marveled at him, because he had loved justice more than his own blood, and had not spared his own children, when they had been false to their country and had offended against the law."—*Arnold's History of Rome.*

12. For more than twelve years after the abolition of the monarchy, the Romans were engaged in war with the adherents and friends of the Tarquins. Several of the neighboring cities raised armies to compel the Romans to reinstate the king, but they were at last all defeated, although at times they seemed to be on the point of accomplishing their object. The most powerful of these was the Etruscan monarch Lars Por'sen-na, who for a few years almost held the Romans in subjection; but he finally made peace with them. The famous battle of Re-gil'lus, in Tus'cu-lum, terminated the struggle, and the Tarquins finally gave up all hope of being restored. It was during this period that the first dictator * was appointed. To this period belong some of the most interesting stories of the legendary history; such as that of Ho-ra'tius (*-she-us*), who kept the bridge against the whole Tuscan army; of Mu'cius Scævola (*se'vo-lah*) and Castor and Pollux at Lake Regillus. A few of these are here given.

Wars with the Tarquins.

Legends.

Legends of the Period of the Tarquins.

Brutus and the Oracle. On one occasion King Tarquin was terribly frightened by a singular omen: a serpent glided from beneath the altar, at the time of sacrifice, and devoured the entrails of the victim. In his alarm, the king resolved to send his two sons and his half-witted nephew, Junius Brutus, to Delphi to ask of the oracle an explanation of this dreadful portent. When the two princes had presented their costly offerings, they laughed at the simple Junius, who offered only his staff; but they did not know that the seeming simpleton had hollowed out the staff and filled it with gold. When the oracle, in response to the inquiry who should reign in Rome after Tarquin, had said, "He of you who shall first kiss his mother," the two princes agreed to draw lots for the privilege; but their companion, understanding the oracle better, fell as if by accident on leaving the temple, and kissed his mother earth.

Death of Brutus. In a battle with the Etruscans, A'runs, one of the sons of Tarquin, seeing Brutus at the head of the Roman cavalry, spurred

* A dictator was an officer vested for a limited time with an absolute and irresponsible authority. He was only appointed in times of great public peril.

[illegible] fell mortally wounded from [illegible] The Roman women mourned for Brutus an [illegible] as the avenger of the matron Lu-cre'-[illegible] Sextus Tarquinius.

Horatius Cocles. [illegible] of Clusium, in Etruria, [illegible] just across the Tiber from [illegible] Sublician (*sub-lish'e-an*) [illegible] Horatius, with almost super-[illegible] while his comrades broke [illegible] a fervent prayer to "Father [illegible] plunged into the stream, and, amid a shower of [illegible] This legend was a favor-[illegible] Romans. It forms the subject of one of Macaulay's [illegible]

> "When the goodman mends his armor
> [illegible]
> When the goodwill is [illegible] merrily
> [illegible]
> [illegible]
> [illegible]
> How [illegible] Horatius kept the bridge
> In the brave days of old."

Mucius Scævola. While the Etruscans were besieging Rome, a young noble, named Mucius, entered the camp of the enemy with the determination to kill the king. But he happened to slay the royal treasurer, mistaking him for the king, and was immediately seized and led to the tent of Porsenna, who threatened him with death. Then Mucius, to show his contempt for pain and death, thrust his right hand into the flames of a burning altar, and held it there until it was burnt to ashes. Astonished at such fortitude, the king dismissed him without further harm; but he, as if in gratitude, informed the monarch that there were in Rome three hundred young men, as brave as himself, who had solemnly vowed to take his life. The consequence was, that Porsenna, in great alarm, made peace with the Romans. This young man was ever after held in great honor, and received the name Scævola, the *Left-handed*.

[illegible] of Lake Regillus. As a last effort to regain his throne, Tarquin [illegible] for aid to his son-in-law, Octavius Ma-mil'i-us, of Tusculum, [illegible] Latins espoused his cause. In the long and bloody battle at [illegible]gillus, at one time it seemed as if the Roman army was about [illegible] way, when Aulus Pos-tu'mi-us, offering a prayer to the twin

deities, Castor and Pollux, vowed to build a temple in their honor if they would come to the aid of the Romans. But a short time elapsed,

> "When he was aware of a princely pair,
> That rode at his right hand.
> So like they were, no mortal
> Might one from the other know;
> White as snow their armor was,
> Their steeds were white as snow."

Another charge was made, under this more than mortal leadership, and the Latins fled. That same evening two young men rode into Rome on white steeds, and announced the victory. They were seen to wash their horses at the spring Ju-tur'na, in the Forum, and then they vanished.

> "And all the people trembled,
> And pale grew every cheek;
> And Sergius the High Pontiff
> Alone found voice to speak:
> 'The Gods who live forever
> Have fought for Rome to-day!
> These be the great Twin Brethren
> To whom the Dorians pray.'"

Condition of the plebeians.

13. Although the monarchy had been abolished, the people of Rome by no means enjoyed the blessings of a free government. All political power was in the hands of the patricians, and the plebeians were kept in a condition of great social degradation. Obliged to borrow money of their rich neighbors, they were charged enormous rates of interest, and when unable to pay, were delivered by the cruel laws to the mercy of their creditors, who deprived them of their lands, and reduced them to the condition of serfs or slaves.* Nevertheless, they were compelled to perform military duty whenever called upon by the

* "When a Roman plebeian found himself involved in a debt which he could not pay, his best resource was to sell himself to his creditor, on the condition that unless the debt were previously discharged, the creditor, at the expiration of a stated term, should enter into possession of his purchase. This was called, in the language of the Roman law, the entering into a *nexum*, and the person who had thus conditionally sold himself was said to be '*nexus*;' that is, *bound*. When the day came, the creditor claimed possession, and the magistrates awarded it; and the debtor, thus given over to his purchaser, passed, with all that belonged to him, into his power; and as the sons were considered their father's property, they also, unless previously emancipated, were included in the sale, and went into slavery together with their father."—*Arnold's History of Rome.*

government. This state of things disheartened the plebs (common people), and produced in their minds a most bitter feeling of hatred toward the patricians.

14. At length their condition became so wretched that they refused to take the field against the public enemy; but, leaving the city to the patricians, departed in a body to the Sacred Mount, about three miles distant, where they resolved to found a new city. This compelled the nobles to make some concessions. They released the debtors from their obligations, setting free all who had been made slaves, and assented to the appointment of two magistrates, called *Trib'unes*, who were to be chosen from the ranks of the plebeians, to hold office one year, and to have the power of annulling any law of the Senate by pronouncing the word *Veto* (*I forbid it*). After this arrangement had been effected, the people returned to the city (494 B.C.).

Secession.

Tribunes.

15. This concession on the part of the nobles, though important, was not so great as it appears, since the tribunes were elected by the assembly of the centuries (*Comitia Centuriata*), in which, according to the constitution of Servius Tullius, the patricians could always, by means of their wealth, command a majority of votes. The tribunes were not invested with any of the ordinary duties of magistrates, their office being simply to protect the rights of the plebeians by their check upon the legislation of the Senate, that body being purely an aristocratic assemblage, and by preventing the execution of any law or measure of the consul which they deemed injurious to the interests of their order. Their persons were declared sacred and inviolable. The tribunes were afterward increased to five, and finally, in later times, to ten. By the I-cil'i-an law, passed the next year (493 B.C.), any person who interrupted a tribune while addressing the people might be punished with death.

Powers of tribunes.

16. Another source of trouble was the injustice of the nobles in seizing upon the public or conquered lands, and keeping them for their exclusive use; whereas, by the constitution of Servius Tullius, they were to be divided partly among the poorer people. This kind of aggression continued to exist for centuries, and gave rise to the proposal of many exciting measures, called "agrarian laws," the object of which was to enforce a proper division of the public lands. This was the more necessary, since, when held in large quantities by the wealthy, the lands were cultivated by slaves, and the small farmers and freemen were deprived of the means of existence.

Agrarian laws.

17. To correct this injustice and abuse, the consul Spu'rius Cassius (*kash'e-us*), a patrician of the highest standing, proposed the first Agrarian Law, providing for an equitable division of the newly acquired lands (486 B.C.). The patricians were greatly incensed against the measure, but they could not prevent its enactment. The next year, however, an accusation was brought against Cassius, at their instigation, charging him with aiming at kingly power; and he was condemned and put to death. The agrarian law was not enforced; for the influence of the patricians was greatly strengthened by the execution of Cassius, and the Fabian family (*gens*) succeeded in usurping the consulship for ten years. They were at last driven out of the city, and for two years sustained the war of Veii (*ve'yi*) against Rome; but were finally enticed into an ambuscade and slain (477 B.C.).

Spurius Cassius.

Fabian family.

18. The contest between the orders for the execution of the agrarian law was still fiercely waged; and it became obvious to the people that they must have bold and independent men as tribunes to contend against the unscrupulous and violent patricians. Hence, the tribune Vol'e-ro Pub-lil'i-us proposed a law that the tribunes should be elected by the plebeians themselves at the Assembly

Publilian law.

of the Tribes, instead of, as previously, by the Assembly of the Centuries. This measure, after great opposition, was carried (471 B.C.), and was a great gain to the lower order. Indeed, the Publilian law of Volero broke the power of the nobles, and virtually made Rome a democratic state.

19. While these struggles had been going on in the city between the two orders, there were almost constant wars with the neighboring people, among whom the Æ′qui-ans and Volscians (*vol′she-ans*) were the most troublesome. To this period belongs the story of Co-ri-o-la′nus, a patrician general, who acquired his surname by the capture of Co-ri′-o-li, an important city of the Volscians. Having great influence at Rome in consequence of the victories which he had gained, he insisted, during a time of famine, that no corn should be given to the people unless they would relinquish their privileges. But the tribunes procured his banishment; and going over to the Volscians, he marched with an army against Rome and threatened its capture. The Senate made several attempts to dissuade him from his revengeful purpose, but in vain. At last, when his mother, wife, and children were sent to his camp to intercede for the city, he relented, and retired with his army. Shortly afterward, he was put to death by the Volscians (488 B.C.).

Coriolanus.

20. To a somewhat later period belongs the interesting legend of Cin-cin-na′tus, who, although a patrician, lived on a small farm which he cultivated with his own hands. Twice was he called from the plow to serve his country, once as consul and again as dictator; and while holding the latter office, he gained a great victory over the Æquians; and then, having freed Rome from danger, immediately resigned his great office, and returned to his humble agricultural labors, followed by the applause and blessings of all his countrymen (458 B.C.). Nearly thirty years afterward, when at the age of eighty, he was again called from his retirement to take the office of dictator,

Cincinnatus.

21. During this period, while Rome was imperiled by fierce enemies without, the contest still raged within between the rival orders. Concession after concession was wrung from the nobles, but the people still pressed forward clamorous for their rights, and for just and equal laws; for there was no written code to which they could appeal. The patricians again gave way, and allowed a commission of three to be sent to Athens and Southern Italy in order to study, and report on, the Grecian systems of legislation. On their return, ten persons (Decem'virs) were appointed to prepare a code of laws (451 B.C.). They were also invested with a very large authority, superseding the other magistrates, and ruling by turns, each for one day. The celebrated code of the *Twelve Tables* was the result of their labors. Thus was laid the foundation of Roman jurisprudence. These laws were set up in a prominent place, so that all the people might read them; and afterward were committed to memory by the boys in the schools.

Decemvirs.

Twelve Tables.

22. The task assigned to the Decemvirs had been so well performed, and they had ruled with such justice and moderation, that the office was continued for another year, in order that they might complete the work. But Ap'pi-us Clau'di-us, one of their number, was a bold, ambitious, wicked man, and he succeeded in having elected with him those who were wedded to his interests. The mask was soon thrown off; and the people found their lives and property entirely at the mercy of a relentless despot. Lucius Si-cin'ni-us Den-ta'tus, a brave soldier and former tribune, spoke loudly against this usurpation, and was waylaid and murdered. A dreadful outrage* perpetrated by

Appius Claudius.

* This was the attempt which Appius made to obtain possession of Virginia, a beautiful maiden, the daughter of a soldier named Virginius. To accomplish his object Appius induced one of his clients to swear that she was the daughter of one of his slaves; and she was seized and brought before the Decemvir's tribunal, where the client made his claim, which Appius at once decided in his favor. Virginius, who had hastened to the spot, seeing no way left to save his daughter

Appius Claudius at last caused a revolt of the army; and the tyrants were compelled to abdicate. The former government was then restored (449 B.C.). Appius Claudius put an end to his life while in prison.

23. The right of intermarriage between the patricians and plebeians being forbidden, a law was introduced by one of the tribunes (445 B.C.) making such marriages legal. This, after violent opposition, was passed, and was immediately followed by a proposal to open the consulship to the plebeians. To put an end to the strife and excitement which this produced, the duties of consuls were intrusted to officers called *military tribunes*, to be elected by the Assembly of the Centuries, both patricians and plebeians being eligible to the office. The Senate, however, could order the election of consuls, instead of the tribunes, for any year. These officers continued to be elected with various intermissions until 367 B.C., when, by the *Li-cin'ian Law*, plebeians were admitted to the consulship. About this time, also, two magistrates, called Censors, were appointed for the purpose of taking the census (445 B.C.).*

Military tribunes.

24. The Romans having besieged Veii, a large and powerful city of E-tru'ri-a, for several years, were on the point of suffering a disastrous defeat, when Fu'ri-us Ca-mil'lus, being appointed dictator, caused a tunnel to be dug, by means of which the soldiers were admitted into the citadel, and the city was taken and destroyed (396 B.C.). Veii being a larger and more magnificent city than Rome itself, and more favorably situated, very many of the

Furius Camillus.

from dishonor, plunged a knife into her bosom, and rushing from the city, told his tale of woe to the army. This aroused the indignation of the soldiers, and they revolted, encamping on the Aventine at first; but being afterward joined by the other army, they took up a position on the Sacred Mount. The story of Virginia forms the subject of one of Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

* The powers and duties were afterward greatly extended; for they exercised a general control over the finances of the state, the management of the public land, and the farming of the taxes, as well as a general supervision over the public and private life of every citizen.

Romans were inclined to abandon their own city and migrate thither. From this, however, they were finally dissuaded by the patricians. Camillus, being accused of appropriating the spoils of the conquered city to his own use, was driven into exile (391 B.C.). The conquest of Veii made an important addition to the Roman territory. Four new tribes were formed; and the wealth acquired from the spoils gave a new impulse to industry and trade.

25. At this period, the Gauls, a barbarous but very bold and warlike people of the Celtic race, had possessed themselves of nearly all western Europe, and occupied also the north of Italy. Proceeding farther south, they attacked Clu'si-um, an important city of Etruria, the inhabitants of which sent to Rome for assistance. (391 B.C.) Embassadors were accordingly sent to Clusium (*klu'she-um*) to demand of the Gauls the reason of their hostile invasion, and bid them quit a territory to which they had no claim. Bren'nus, their leader, answered that the "title of brave men was their swords;" whereupon a battle ensued, in which the Roman deputies, unmindful of their neutral character, took part against the Gauls. This so enraged Brennus that he immediately left Clusium, and with an army of nearly 75,000 men marched toward Rome. On the banks of the Al'li-a, a few miles from the city, he met and defeated the Roman army; and then marching to the

THE CELTIC ARMS.

Invasion by the Gauls.

city itself, entered it without opposition, all the inhabitants having fled, except eighty aged senators, who awaited the enemy in the Forum, in their robes of state and seated in their ivory chairs. These venerable men were quickly massacred, and the city pillaged and burnt (390 B.C.).*

26. The citadel, however, being built on a steep and lofty cliff, held out for seven months; and the Gauls besieging it were reduced in numbers by a pestilence which broke out among them. It is said that at one time they were on the point of taking the citadel; for having discovered a narrow path up the cliff, they had nearly reached the summit during the darkness of night, all the guards being asleep; but at that instant the sacred geese kept in the temple of Juno commenced a loud cackling, which awoke the garrison; and the Roman commander, Mar'cus Man'li-us, springing up, rushed to the edge of the rock and hurled the Gauls headlong down.

27. In the mean while, Camillus had been called from banishment and made dictator. He arrived, as the story goes, with an army just as the Romans were about to deliver to the Gauls 1000 pounds of gold which they had agreed to pay as a ransom. Exclaiming that "Rome should be ransomed only with steel," he ordered the gold to be carried away, and immediately attacking the Gauls, defeated them

* Many of these details are mythical, but there is probably a basis of truth. The following is Arnold's description of the savage massacre of the Roman senators: "Then, as men devoted to death, they arrayed themselves in their most solemn dress; they who had held curule offices, in their robes of white with the broad scarlet border; they who had won triumphs, in their robes of triumph, overlaid with embroidery of many colors and with palm-branches of gold, and took their seats, each on his ivory chair of magistracy, in the gateway of his house. When the Gauls saw these aged men in this array of majesty, sitting motionless amidst the confusion of the sack of the city, they at first looked upon them as more than human, and one of the soldiers drew near to M. Papirius, and began to stroke reverently his ivory-white beard. Papirius, who was a minister of the gods, could not endure the touch of profane barbarian hands, and struck the Gaul over the head with his ivory scepter. Instantly the spell of reverence was broken, and rage and the thirst of blood succeeded to it. The Gaul cut down the old Papirius with his sword; his comrades were kindled at the sight, and all the old men, according to their vow, were offered up as victims to the powers of death."—*History of Rome.*

with great slaughter. Other, and probably more truthful, accounts state that the gold was paid, and that the Gauls then peaceably retired; and it is even said that, more than a hundred years afterward, some of this very gold was recovered from the Gauls of that later period. It is, however, certain that the city was left in ruins; and the public records having been destroyed, no materials for an authentic history of the events preceding this period could afterward be obtained.

28. After the departure of the invaders, the city was in a sad condition, and the people were almost in despair. They had lost their houses, their cattle, and their crops, and yet were obliged to pay taxes in order to repair the city walls, and to carry on the wars which the neighboring states waged against them. They were also very much oppressed by the merciless laws against debtors. In this crisis, Marcus Manlius, the brave defender of the citadel, distinguished himself by his efforts and sacrifices to relieve the people's wants. Having by this means acquired very great popularity, he excited the suspicions of the patricians, and was accused of attempting to make himself king; of which offense being unjustly pronounced guilty, he was thrown down the Tarpeian (*tar-pe'an*) Rock, the very place from which he had repelled his country's enemies (383 B.C.).*

Marcus Manlius.

29. For a considerable time the destitution and suffering of the people continued, while the wealthy classes selfishly held on to their unjust powers and privileges. At length a scheme of legislation was presented by C. Li-cin'i-us Sto'lo and L. Sextius, two plebeians of high rank and great ability (366 B.C.). This measure, known as the Licinian Laws, comprehended three provisions: (1) That

Licinian laws

* "M. Manlius, less pure and disinterested than his prototype, Spurius Cassius, made the plebeian wrongs the stalking horse of his own ambition. Partly tempted, partly goaded into crime, he is entitled to our pity, even though we condemn him. His intentions were probably at first honest, and the means that he designed to use legal; but the opposition which he encountered drove him to desperate measures, and he became in the end a dangerous conspirator."—*Rawlinson.*

the interest already paid on borrowed money should be deducted from the principal, and the balance made payable in three yearly installments; (2) That no person should hold more than 500 *jugera* (about 330 acres) of the public lands; and (3) That thereafter consuls should be elected in the place of military tribunes, and that one of the two consuls should belong to the plebeian order.

30. The Licinian laws were adopted, but not without a severe struggle that lasted several years, during which the aged Camillus was again made dictator. Lucius Sextius, one of the proposers of the laws, was elected the first plebeian consul; and, at the close of the contest, Camillus dedicated a temple to Concord. The patricians, however, from time to time, endeavored to override or evade these laws, but were invariably defeated, being compelled in the end to make still further concessions. At the close of these long struggles, a perfect equality was established in the political powers of the orders; for the plebeians were admitted to all the offices, including the dictatorship, censorship, and even the sacred college of pontiffs and augurs. Domestic tranquillity being thus established, Rome was ready to commence her wonderful career of conquest (340 B.C.).

Camillus dictator.

Triumph of the plebeians.

II. Period of Italian Conquests.

31. During the period to which we have arrived, lasting about three fourths of a century (340–264 B.C.), great wars were waged in Italy, the result of which was that Rome became mistress of the whole peninsula. These wars consist chiefly of the four Samnite wars, the great Latin war, the war with Pyr'rhus, and a war with the Gauls. These will all be treated of briefly, avoiding details in the account of the military movements, since for these, if needed, larger works can be consulted. The first to be referred to is the war with the Samnites.

Conquest of Italy.

32. The Samnites, a warlike people inhabiting central Italy, having made war upon the Campa'nians, the latter called in the aid of the Romans (343 B.C.), who entering Campania defeated the Samnites with immense slaughter, and compelled them to make peace, after the war had lasted about two years. A war with the Latin cities followed, in which the Romans were also victorious, and Latium was annexed to the Roman territory (339 B.C.). In the second war with the Samnites, the Romans sustained a terrible defeat in a narrow valley called the Cau'dīne Forks, and were compelled by the Samnite general to pass under the yoke* in acknowledgment of their subjugation (321 B.C.). The war was, however, continued until 305 B.C., when the Samnites, having been repeatedly defeated, were compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome. Seven years afterward, they renewed the war, being aided by the Umbrians, Etruscans, and Gauls; but the allied army suffered a great defeat near Sen-ti'num, a town in Um'bria (295 B.C.). This famous victory gave the Romans the dominion of nearly all Italy.† Close upon this event, followed a war with the Etrurians and Gauls, whose combined forces were also vanquished with great slaughter.

First Samnite war.

Latin war.

Other Samnite wars.

War with the Gauls.

33. The inhabitants of the Greek colony of Ta-ren'tum [see map, page 87] having given offense to the Romans, the latter declared war upon them, upon which the Tarentines solicited the aid of Pyrrhus, king of E-pi'rus, the greatest general of his age. Complying with this request, he landed in Italy and gained a great

War with Pyrrhus.

* The yoke was formed by setting two spears upright, and placing another across the top of them.

† "The third Samnite war is the contest of confederated Italy against the terrible enemy whose greatness was now seen to threaten every power in the peninsula. Its turning point, which well deserves its place among the ten or twelve 'Decisive Battles of the World,' was the battle of Sentinum."—*Rawlinson.*

victory over the Romans, commanded by the Consul Læ-vi'-nus (280 B.C.). But it was a dear-bought triumph, for he lost many of his best troops and some of his ablest officers, and was probably indebted for it more to the confusion occasioned by the elephants which his army contained, and to which the Romans were not accustomed, than to the superior valor or skill of his soldiers. When, on visiting the battle-field the next day, he gazed on the Roman dead, all of whom appeared to have fallen in their ranks, and with their faces turned toward the enemy, he exclaimed: "If I had such soldiers as these, how easily could I conquer the world!"

34. Many of the Italian nations now joined Pyrrhus, and he advanced to a point within eighteen miles from Rome, to which he sent an emissary, offering peace; but the Roman senate refused to treat for peace until he should withdraw his forces from Italy. Another battle was fought the next year, in which the Romans were again defeated, but with great loss to Pyrrhus. Leaving Italy, he then proceeded to Sicily with the design of expelling the Carthaginians from that island, but in this he was not successful; and after an absence of two years he returned to Tarentum. At Ben-e-ven'-tum, a town in Samnium, about 28 miles from Cap'u-a, he was met by the Romans under the Consul Cu'ri-us Den-ta'tus, and suffered a most disastrous defeat (275 B.C.), after which he retired from Italy, with the almost total loss of his army.*

Defeat of Pyrrhus.

35. After the departure of Pyrrhus, the Tarentines applied for aid to the Carthaginians, who sent a fleet for their relief; but the Romans obtained possession of Tarentum. The Samnites, Luca'nians, and other tribes soon afterward submitted, thus leaving Rome *mistress of all Italy* (264 B.C.). Over this extensive domain she organized a most effective government.

* On his return to Greece, he was proclaimed king of Macedonia. Making war upon the Spartans, he nearly took their city; but, in an attack upon Argos, he was killed by a tile thrown by a woman from the roof of a house.

Some portions, which were called *præfectures*—that is, districts governed by præfects, she ruled by means of magistrates sent from herself. From others, the *municipal towns*, she only exacted military service, leaving to them the control of their own local affairs; while in very many she planted *colonies* of Roman citizens, whom she supplied with lands from the conquered territory, and placed over the subjugated inhabitants. Her rule was, however, mild and generally just, and was but little disturbed by commotion or revolt.

36. In connection with the colonial system of Rome at this time, the military roads were an important auxiliary. After the conquest of Campania, Appius Claudius (Cæcus) constructed a paved road to Capua, called after him the Appian Way (312 B.C.). Other roads were afterward constructed, which intersected every part of Italy, and served to bind all the outposts to Rome as the great center of the whole. The wonderful aqueducts, stretching over hills and valleys, or forming subterranean channels, were commenced about this time. The remains of these structures, so extensive and durable, now present one of the most imposing spectacles that the eye of the traveler rests upon among the wonders of the "Eternal City" and its surroundings.

Military roads.

Aqueducts.

THE VIA APPIA.
(Passing through the grotto of Posilipo near Naples.)

III. PERIOD OF FOREIGN CONQUESTS (264–133 B.C.).

37. The period to which we have now arrived, in the history of Rome, is especially marked by the splendor of her military career, and the rapidity and extent of her foreign conquests. Owing to the great increase of her wealth from

the conquered states in Italy, and the large and numerous colonies which she was continually sending forth, and having now an established constitution and system of laws, she was relieved from those internal troubles by which the development of her power as a nation was checked. Hence, at this period, the external relations of Rome became the all-engrossing theme; for the brazen gates of the temple of Janus had never been closed but once during this long series of years (in 235 B.C.).

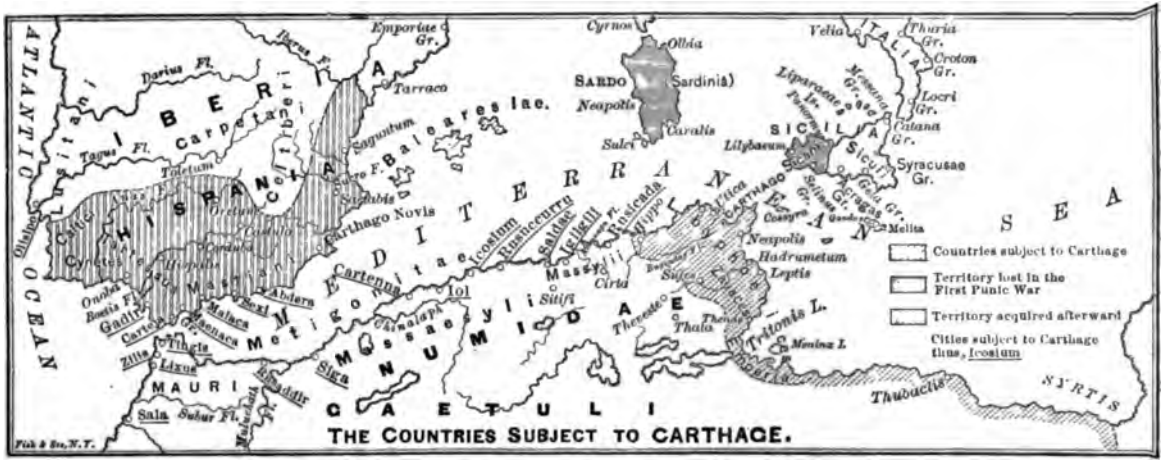
38. Across the Mediterranean, on the African shore, was the great rival republic, Carthage (see map, p. 205); and it was with her that Rome was now to measure her strength in three tremendous contests, known in history as the Punic Wars. Carthage was of Phœnician origin, having been settled by the Tyrians about six centuries before this period. She had, at this time, become one of the greatest maritime powers in the world. Her ships covered the Mediterranean, distributing the products of the East to the various ports on its shores. Three hundred cities in Africa paid her tribute; and she had made extensive conquests in Spain, Sardinia, and Sicily.

Punic wars.

Carthage.

39. Syracuse, however, in Sicily, still retained its independence, after repeated wars with the Carthaginians. This city was a colony of the Corinthians, established in the eighth century B.C.; and, in the fifth century, became the most populous and powerful state in the island, under a virtuous and patriotic sovereign, named Ge'lon. During its struggle with Athens, in which Nicias was so disastrously defeated, it was under a free government, but subsequently lost its liberties (405 B.C.), being ruled for 38 years by the famous Di-o-nys'i-us, who carried on a successful war with the Carthaginians. Ti-mo'le-on, a Corinthian of great virtue and talents, restored it to freedom (344 B.C.); but under A-gath'o-clēs, the despotism was again established (317 B.C.). At the time at which we have arrived,

History of Syracuse.



Geographical Study.

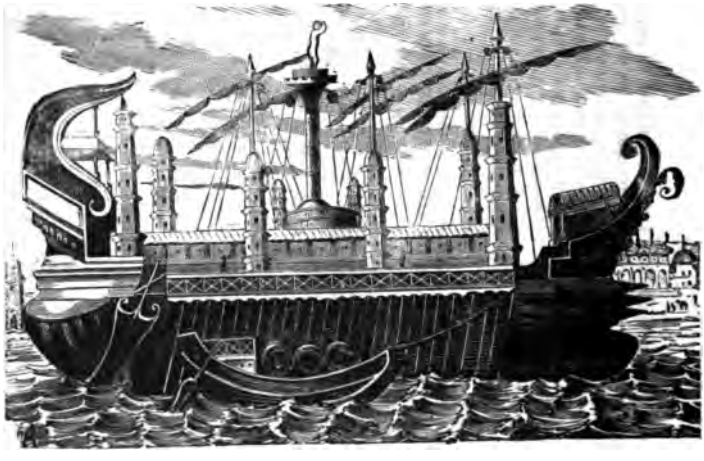
Name the countries and islands subject to Carthage. [*Notice the shading according to direction on the map.*] What was the situation of Iberia? Hispania (Spain)? Sardo (Sardinia)? What part of Sicilia (Sicily) belonged to the Carthaginians)? Where was the country of the Numidæ (Numidians)? Of the Massesyli? Of the Massylii? Of the Libyphœni (Liby-Phœnicians? Of the Lusitani (Lusitanians)? Of the Carpetani? Of the Mauri (Moors)? Of the Gætuli (Gætulians)? What was the situation of Syracusæ (Syracuse)? Carthago (Carthage)? Of the Baleares Insulæ (Balearic Islands)? Of Carthago Nova (New Carthage)? Of Saguntum? Tarraco? Utica? Of the island of Melita (Malta)? Of the Tagus Fluvius (river)? Iberus Fl.? Durius Fl. (Douro River)? What Carthaginian towns were situated on the northern coast of Africa? On the eastern coast of Hispania (Spain)? On the southern coast? In the interior? Where was Olisip'po (Lisbon)? What territory was lost by the Carthaginians during the First Punic War? What territory was acquired afterward? [See *shading.*]

it was under the rule of a monarch named Hi'e-ro, during whose reign flourished the famous mathematician Archimedes (*ar-ke-me'deez*).

FIRST PUNIC WAR.

40. The first Punic war commenced in 264 B.C., and lasted 23 years. It was brought on in the following manner. Agathocles, who waged long wars with Carthage, had hired a body of troops from Campania; and these, after the death of that despot, seized Messana and slaughtered the inhabitants, after which they assumed the name of Mam'er-tines, sons of Mars, or warlike

The Mamertines.



WAR-SHIP OF HIERO.

men. These Hiero, king of Syracuse, marched against and defeated. Whereupon they invoked the aid of the Romans; and, notwithstanding Hiero had but a few years before been their friendly ally, and had given them valuable aid, the Romans decreed that assistance should be sent to the Mamertines. But in the mean time, Hiero had formed an alliance with Carthage; and thus, through a set of mercenary murderers and robbers, these two great republics were plunged

into a series of wars which lasted more than a hundred years. The real cause of the war was, however, the rivalship of these states.

41. The Romans, having gained some important victories, were soon joined by many of the cities of Sicily, including Syracuse, for Hiero soon deserted the Carthaginians, and became an ally of Rome. They then took Ag-ri-gen'tum, defeating an immense army which the Carthaginians had sent to its assistance (262 B.C.). Seeing then the necessity of coping with their enemy on the sea, they built a fleet, and, under the Consul Du-il'li-us, gained a great naval victory. Encouraged by this, they sent an armament under Reg'u-lus to attack Carthage itself; but this expedition, although at first successful, was defeated with great loss through the assistance of Xan-thip'pus, a Spartan general, who had recently entered the service of Carthage. He advised the Carthaginians to select the level, open country for their battle-field, where their elephants and cavalry could be fully brought into action. The greater part of the Romans were slain or made prisoners, Regulus himself being among the latter (255 B.C.).

Success of the Romans.

Regulus.

42. But the Romans were not to be discouraged by this great disaster, and they soon gained several important victories, among which the defeat of Ha-mil'car in Sicily by the Consul Me-tel'lus (251 B.C.) was the most serious to the Carthaginians, and induced them to make overtures for peace. They, accordingly, as is related, took Regulus from prison and sent him to Rome, exacting from him a promise that, unless he should obtain for them favorable terms of peace, he would return to Carthage (250 B.C.). But Regulus listened to the dictates of patriotism, instead of consulting his own personal safety, and advised his countrymen to continue the war, assuring them that Carthage was nearly exhausted. In spite of the entreaties of his family and

Hamilcar's defeat.

Fate of Regulus.

friends, he kept his word, and returned to Carthage, where, it is said, he was put to death with the most dreadful tortures. After the war had continued some years longer, the Carthaginians were compelled again to sue for peace, which was granted on condition that they should evacuate Sicily, acknowledging the independence of Syracuse, restore the Roman prisoners, and pay all the expenses of the war (241 B.C.). Sicily, with the exception of Syracuse, then became a Roman province.

Close of the war.

43. One important result of this war was to make Rome a great naval power; for, though at the beginning the Romans had no maritime experience, in the course of it they became fully a match for the Carthaginians in this kind of warfare. Carthage was still further weakened by the revolt of her mercenary army and African allies. But she was finally rescued from this trouble by the energy and genius of Hamilcar, her great general. Rome, however, took advantage of the revolt to seize upon Sardinia, which she formed into a Roman province. In the organization of Sicily and Sardinia commenced the provincial system, each province paying taxes to the Roman people. Rome also showed her maritime skill and power in subduing the Il-lyr'i-an pirates, then the terror of the surrounding seas. She also defeated the Gauls in northern Italy, and made a complete conquest of the country between the Apennines and the Alps, afterward called Cisalpine Gaul.

Results of the war.

Provincial system.

Further successes.

44. In the mean time, the Carthaginians, driven out of Sicily and Sardinia, obtained full compensation for their loss by their increase of power in southern Spain, under the management of their great leader, Hamilcar. They occupied the rich towns, and reduced and trained to arms the warlike Celts and Iberians. They, moreover, discovered and commenced to work the rich silver mines, near which they founded a city called New

Carthaginians in Spain.

Carthage, designed to be the capital of this new empire. Rome, ever watchful and jealous, made an alliance with Sa-gun'tum, and extorted a promise from the Carthaginians that they would not pass the Ebro.

45. But Han'ni-bal, the son of Hamilcar, had when a youth been made by his father to swear upon the altar eternal enmity to the Romans; and, as soon as he assumed the command (220 B.C.), he determined to carry his hostile plans into execution by invading Italy. He first marched his forces to Saguntum, a city south of the I-be'rus, which, in spite of the remonstrances of the Roman senate, he captured, after a siege of eight months (219 B.C.). This was the commencement of the *Second Punic War.**

Hannibal.

SECOND PUNIC WAR.

46. Hannibal, having passed the winter at New Carthage, in the spring crossed the Pyrenees, with the intention of invading Italy; for he anticipated that the warlike tribes of the newly conquered territory of Cisalpine Gaul would declare in his favor, and expected that the Italian states would desert the Roman confederacy. With wonderful daring and dispatch he crossed the Alps, and at the river Ti-ci'nus met and defeated the Romans under their consul Scip'i-o (218 B.C.). A few days afterward, he inflicted a severe defeat upon the other consul, Sem-pro'ni-us, near the river Tre'bi-a, a short distance from the scene of the first conflict. Another great battle was fought the next year, near the lake Tras-i-mē'nus, where the Romans were again defeated,

Invasion of Italy.

Defeat of the Romans.

* After the fall of Saguntum, the Roman senate sent an embassy to Carthage to demand satisfaction for this violence done to the allies of Rome; and, in presenting the subject, the chief of the embassy, gathering up the folds of his toga, exclaimed: "Here I carry peace and war. Say, ye men of Carthage, which shall it be?" "Give us what you will," was the reply. "Then give we war," said the ambassador, spreading out his toga. "We accept it, and will maintain it with the spirit in which it is accepted," rejoined the Carthaginians. Thus, according to Livy, was this dreadful war declared.

their army being almost destroyed (217 B.C.). So alarmed did the Romans become, in consequence, that they immediately appointed a dictator, Fa'bi-us Max'i-mus being selected for the office. But Hannibal did not march to Rome, as was expected, because he waited for the Italians to join his standard; but their fidelity to Rome remained unshaken, and not a town opened its gates to the invader.

47. The cautious Fabius, unwilling to risk another engagement with Hannibal's army, now flushed with victory, adopted the tactics of harassing the invaders as much as possible, hovering around them, like "a cloud on the mountains," thus wearing out their resources by delay. The Romans were thus enabled to recover somewhat from their disasters; but the next year (216 B.C.), Hannibal, having advanced into southern Italy, was opposed by a large army under the consuls Æ-mil'i-us and Var'ro; and at Can'næ a terrific battle took place, which for the fourth time resulted in a complete victory for the Carthaginians (216 B.C.). It is said that more than 50,000 Romans fell on the field, and that Hannibal sent to Carthage over a bushel of gold rings, taken from the fingers of the senators and knights who were found among the slain. Several of the tribes in the south of Italy revolted from the Romans; but the Greek cities and nearly all the Italian subjects remained faithful. Hannibal, instead of marching on the city, which it is thought he might have captured, went into winter quarters at Capua, and waited for reinforcements.

Fabius.

Battle of Cannæ.

48. In the mean time, the Romans had sent Publius Corne'lius Scipio into Spain to make an attack upon the Carthaginians there, in order that no additional forces might be sent to Hannibal. In a few years Scipio succeeded in destroying the Carthaginian power in that country, and reduced Spain to the condition of a Roman province (216–205 B.C.). Hannibal gained no decisive victory after that at Cannæ. His army, reduced in numbers,

Scipio in Spain.

and impaired in strength and discipline by the pleasures and vices of Capua, was scarcely adequate to protect his Italian allies against the Romans, now under the command of Fabius and Mar-cel'lus, the former of whom, from his cautious policy, was called the Shield of Rome, and the latter, on account of his vigor and address, the Sword of Rome. Marcellus did important service in Sicily.

Fabius and Marcellus.

49. Hiero, king of Syracuse, having died, the people of that city established a popular government, and declared against the interests of Rome. Marcellus therefore proceeded against the place, which he took after a siege of two years (212 B.C.). This siege is memorable for the part taken in the defense of the city by Archimedes, who exhausted his science and skill in the invention of machines to assail the besiegers. In the general massacre that followed the entrance of the Romans, the aged philosopher was slain;* the city was pillaged, and many of its magnificent works of art were carried to Rome.

Taking of Syracuse.

* Archimedes was in his study, absorbed in his scientific researches, when the Romans entered; nor did he perceive that the city was taken till a soldier entered his room, and commanded him to follow him into the presence of Marcellus. Archimedes requested him to wait till he had finished his problem, upon which the soldier drew his sword and killed him. Marcellus, much grieved, ordered his body to be honorably buried, and a tomb erected to his memory. His genius for mathematics and his devotion to his favorite study were very remarkable. He was often so engaged in this study that he neglected his meat and drink. The incident of the crown is very interesting. It seems that a jeweler had made a crown for Hiero; but the king, suspecting that it had been fraudulently alloyed with silver, set Archimedes

50. Hannibal, despairing of succor from Carthage, now eagerly awaited the arrival of a force under his brother Has'dru-bal from Spain, which had been expected for some time. At length Hasdrubal succeeded in crossing the Alps, and was proceeding on his route to join Hannibal in Umbria, when he was intercepted by a Roman army, at the Metaurus River; and was defeated and slain (207 B.C.). Hannibal received notice of this disaster by the sight of his brother's gory head, which the consuls caused to be thrown into his camp. At the sight of this dreadful omen, Hannibal exclaimed: "I foresee the doom of Carthage!" The Romans, under the influence of Scipio, the conqueror of Spain, resolved now to "carry the war into Africa," and Scipio was appointed to the command. Meanwhile, Hannibal withdrew to the wild and mountainous districts of Bruttium (*bru'she-um*), still nursing the hope that he might receive reinforcements from Carthage.

Defeat of Hasdrubal.

51. Scipio landed in Africa in 204 B.C. Having defeated the Numid'ians in a great battle, and vanquished the Carthaginians with immense slaughter, at U'ti-ca, Scipio marched almost to the gates of Carthage; when the Carthaginian senate, driven to despair, recalled Hannibal to the defense of his own country. The call was at once obeyed, and landing in Africa, Hannibal drew up his forces on the plain of Za'ma, a town in Numidia.* Seeing that his army was far inferior to that of the Romans, he obtained an interview with Scipio, and proposed a treaty of

Scipio in Africa.

to examine into the affair. Archimedes thought upon the subject a long time in vain. But one day in the bath, perceiving that his body displaced a certain quantity of water, it occurred to him that there was a definite relation between the quantity of water displaced and the weight of the body, and thus the principle of *specific gravity* flashed across his mind. The problem was solved; and, transported with joy, he ran out into the street, crying out *Eureka! Eureka!* "I have found it! I have found it!"

* Zama, sometimes called Zama Regia, lay some distance to the south-west of Carthage, and north-west of Hadrumetum. It was a place of considerable size and strongly fortified. [See map, page 216.]

peace; but Scipio, true to Roman policy, declined the proposal. The battle therefore took place, and Hannibal was defeated with great loss (202 B.C.).

52. The battle of Zama ended the second Punic war; for although the Carthaginians were not utterly exhausted, yet, by the prudent counsel of Hannibal, who saw that it would be useless to protract the struggle, they consented to accept the terms of peace dictated by Scipio, and approved by the Roman Senate. These were very severe: Carthage was to evacuate Spain, to give up all her prisoners, surrender her fleets, make annual payment of 200 talents for fifty years, in order to defray the expenses of the war, and agree to undertake no future war without the consent of Rome. The treaty having been concluded, Scipio returned home, and was honored with a more splendid triumph than any Roman general had previously received. He was called thereafter Scipio Af-ri-ca'nus.

Close of the war.

53. Hannibal, for a time, was treated with great respect by the Carthaginians, and being placed at the head of the government, endeavored to restore the nation to its former prosperity and splendor. But the intrigues of the ancient nobility prevailed against him, and he was compelled to flee in order to save his life (196 B.C.). Taking refuge in Syria, at the court of Antiochus (*an-ti'o-kus*) the Great, he assisted that monarch in a war against the Romans; but the latter prevailing, demanded that Hannibal should be given up to them; whereupon he fled to Bithynia, and then, being still pursued by the Roman emissaries, he was at last obliged to put an end to his life to avoid falling into their hands (183 B.C.).*

Fate of Hannibal.

* "After the loss of his last hope by the destruction of the Syrian host at Magnesia, he wandered from land to land till he found a resting-place at the court of Prusias of Bithynia. The Senate could not breathe while their great enemy lived; and Flamininus was sent to demand from Prusias the person of his illustrious guest. The king dared not say nay, and gave Hannibal to understand that he must be surrendered to Flamininus; but the great Carthaginian, to avoid falling into the hands of

Conquest of Macedonia and Greece.

54. At the close of the Second Punic War, the Romans commenced an attack on Macedonia; for Philip, the king of that country, had not only given aid to the Carthaginians, but was engaged at this time in schemes to conquer Egypt, Pergamus, and Rhodes, which Rome chose to take under her protection, claiming them as her allies. Hence, she entered upon what is called the Macedonian War. The Roman general, Flam-i-ni'nus, on taking the command, united all Greece against Philip, by issuing a declaration of Grecian independence; and the next year he totally defeated Philip in the great battle of Cyn-os-ceph'a-læ (197 B.C.). This decisive victory made Rome the arbitress of the world.

Macedonian war.

55. The war against Antiochus, of Syria, soon followed (192 B.C.); for this great monarch dared to undertake the conquest of certain countries—Asia Minor, Thrace, etc.—without the consent of the Roman senate. Moreover, he afforded an asylum to Hannibal, sent a haughty defiance to the Romans, and, on the invitation of the Ætolians, landed in Greece. But his Greek allies were routed at Thermopylæ (191 B.C.), his fleet was scattered; and he himself, the next year, suffered an overwhelming defeat at Magnesia, in Asia Minor, from the Roman army, really directed by the great Scipio, though his brother Lucius had the command. The latter was afterward styled *Asiaticus*, in honor of this great victory. These two illustrious men subsequently excited the envy of certain persons at Rome, and were accused of embezzling some of the treasures

War against Antiochus.

his implacable foes, swallowed a dose of poison, which, according to the common story, he carried with him constantly, in the hollow of a ring. He was sixty-three years of age. Life had long ceased to be valuable to him, because opposition to Rome had become hopeless. He died, as he had lived, faithful to the service of that avenging deity to whom he had been bound in his boyhood by his father, Hamilcar."—*Liddell's History of Rome.*

captured in Syria. To this base and ungrateful accusation, Publius Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal, disdained to plead; but quitting Rome in disgust, took up his abode in Campania, where he died a few years afterward (183 B.C.).*

Exile of Scipio.

56. After the death of Philip, king of Macedonia, Perseus (*per'suse*), his successor, a young and brave prince, made an effort to free Macedonia and Greece from the Roman yoke; but, after a war of three years, he was utterly subdued at the battle of Pyd'na (168 B.C.). He was carried captive to Rome, where he and his children graced the triumph of Æmil'ius Paulus, his conqueror. Thus was Macedonia added to the Roman dominions, 144 years after the death of Alexander. It has been observed that the victory of Pydna really established the dominion of Rome over the whole civilized world; for this was the last battle in which the forces of a civilized state contended on anything like equal terms with those of Rome. A few years afterward the conquest of Greece was completed by the taking of Corinth, which was burnt to the ground (146 B.C.).

Battle of Pydna.

Taking of Corinth.

THIRD PUNIC WAR.

57. In the mean time the Third Punic War broke out, caused by the inveterate hatred of the Romans toward the Carthaginians; for the latter had been so thoroughly subdued and humbled that no further danger could be apprehended on their account. There was, however, a strong party at Rome bent on their complete

Cause.

* No more striking instance of the proverbial ingratitude of republics can be found. Scipio directed that his remains should not be conveyed to Rome; but the day of his death was a day of general sorrow in the city, and many who refused to do justice to this great man while he lived shed tears when he passed away. A monument was afterward erected at the place of his death. Scipio had ordered to be inscribed on his tomb: "Ungrateful country, you do not possess even my bones!" Lucius (Asiaticus) was also persecuted for a time; but the reaction set in before his death, and due honor was paid him for his eminent services.

destruction, at the head of which was Porcius Cato, the Censor, who for years was accustomed to end every speech which he made with the words, *Delen'da est Cartha'go,* Carthage must be destroyed.

Cato.

58. A pretext for commencing hostilities was found in the efforts made by Carthage to repel the aggressions of Mas-i-nis'sa, king of Numidia, whom the Romans claimed as their ally. It was in vain that the doomed people endeavored to appease the hostility of their enemies. They complied with every demand, banishing all who had given offense to the Romans, and even

Defense of Carthage.

surrendering their arms and military stores. But when finally told that they must leave Carthage, and permit it to be destroyed, they took courage from despair, shut the gates of the city, and put to death every Roman within its walls. The most vigorous exertions were then made to supply the weapons which the treachery of Rome had wrested from them. Men of every rank toiled day and night in the forges, and the women even cut off their hair to furnish bow-strings for the archers.

59. For three years, under their general, Hasdrubal, did they keep the Romans at bay; but at length were obliged to yield to the skill and perseverance of Scipio, afterward called Africanus the Younger, under whose command the Romans scaled the walls of the city, and cut their way to the citadel. After six days of continuous slaughter, the miserable inhabitants were subdued; and the city having been set on fire, very many perished in the flames. By a subsequent order of the Roman Senate, every house that was left standing was thrown down, and the city completely destroyed, and a curse pronounced against any one who should attempt to rebuild it (146 B.C.). Thus perished this magnificent city of 700,000 people, after it had existed seven centuries. The Carthaginian territory was then formed into a province under the name of Africa, and the seat of government fixed at Utica.*

Taking of Carthage.

60. Although the Carthaginians had been expelled from Spain, the inhabitants were not subdued; and they valiantly defended their liberties for a long series of years against the Romans. Among the most courageous and warlike tribes were the Cel-ti-be'ri-ans and Lu-si-ta'-nians.† The latter found, in their noble and patriotic chief Vir-i-a'tus, a leader worthy of their bravery, and able to cope with the best generals of Rome. During six years he defied every effort for his defeat and capture; and the Lusitanians were not subdued until the Romans by treachery procured his assassination; to such a depth of dishonor had the Roman government sunk at that time (139 B.C.).

War in Spain.

* The destruction of this great city was one of the most ruthless acts recorded in history, like the destruction of Veii, in 393 B.C.; of Corinth, which perished the same year with Carthage; and Jerusalem, in 70 A.D. Under the Emperor Augustus, Carthage was rebuilt, and became, in the second century of the Christian era, one of the finest cities of the Roman Empire. It was again destroyed by the Arabs in the seventh century (698 A.D.), and now only a few ruins remain to mark its site.

† *Lusitania* corresponded very nearly with modern Portugal; *Celtiberia*, with Aragon, in the north-eastern part of Spain.

THE SIEGE OF NUMANTIA.

61. The Numantine war continued several years longer in the vicinity of Numantia, a city in the northern part of Spain; and it was not until Scipio Æmilianus * took the command that it was brought to a successful conclusion. Numantia suffered, for fifteen months, one of the most dreadful sieges recorded in history, the people, in the extremity of famine, devouring the bodies of the dead. At last they were compelled to surrender; but some set fire to their houses, killed their wives and children, and perished in the flames. Only a miserable remnant of the inhabitants survived; and of these Scipio selected fifty to grace his triumphal procession; the rest he sold into slavery, and ordered the city to be entirely destroyed (133 B.C.).

Review of the period.

62. These events closed the epoch which we have called the *period of foreign conquest;* for though Rome continued to carry on wars and to annex new territories, it was during that period that she succeeded in making herself the sole great power in the then civilized world. At the beginning of that epoch, her dominions were confined to Italy; but at its close her sway stretched over the whole of southern Europe, from the Atlantic to the Euxine, including all the great islands near its shores, while her power was felt in Egypt and the kingdoms east of the Mediterranean. Her rapidly acquired provinces had led to an additional feature in her polity—the provincial or proconsular system, each province being governed by a magistrate of great power and dignity, both civil and military, either a proconsul, a prætor, or a proprætor, according to its importance or extent.

63. The effect of this rapid tide of conquest was to pour a flood of wealth into the city, leading to many great public improvements. New buildings were erected, including two

* This was Scipio Africanus the Younger. The title of Numantinus was given to him after the war, making his full name Publius Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus Africanus Numantinus.

new aqueducts; the streets were paved; the city was thoroughly drained by capacious sewers; and additional military roads were constructed in different parts of Italy. It was about this time that the consul P. Scipio Na-si'ca caused a *clep'sy-dra,** or water-clock, to be set up for public use. After the conquest of Greece, the city was filled with Greek scholars, writers, teachers, and musicians, many of whom were slaves; and the study of Greek literature came into vogue with Greek manners, customs, and fashions. Latin literature, also, made a commencement at this epoch, during which flourished the dramatists Nævius, Ennius, Plautus, and Terence. Some of their writings are still extant.

Effects of the conquests.

64. With wealth came luxury and a total departure from the simple manners which had characterized the Romans of the early days. A large part of the people became licentious and effeminate; and the love of pleasure and display, instead of patriotism and virtue, became the ruling motive. Corruption prevailed among the public officers and magistrates; and, to crown all, slavery assumed enormous proportions. It is said that of the population of Italy at this time, about twelve millions—more than two thirds—were slaves.† Such was the state of things that led to the interminable dissensions and terrible civil wars which characterize the next period of this history.

Change in manners.

* The clepsydra, in its simplest form, consisted of a transparent vase, filled with water, which was permitted to escape by a very small orifice, its height as shown by a graduated scale indicating the hour. This instrument was invented, or greatly improved, by Ctesibius of Alexandria, about 235 B.C.

† "A few examples will show the prodigious number of slaves that must have been thrown into the market after the Second Punic War. To punish the Bruttians for the fidelity with which they adhered to the cause of Hannibal, the whole nation were made slaves; 150,000 Epirotes were sold by Æmilius Paulus; 50,000 captives were sent home from Carthage. These numbers are accidentally preserved; and if, according to this scale, we calculate the hosts of unhappy men sold in slavery during the Syrian, Macedonian, Illyrian, Grecian, and Spanish wars, we shall be prepared to hear that slaves fit only for unskilled labor were plentiful and cheap."—*Liddell's History of Rome.*

IV. Period of Internal Dissensions and Civil War (133–29 B.C.).

65. The Gracchi. The great conquests which had been made served rather to enrich the nobles than to benefit the middle and poorer classes of the citizens; and, besides, had corrupted the government by giving undue power to the Senate. The agrarian laws which in earlier times had been passed to protect the people against the greed of the aristocracy, were generally unobserved; so that the land throughout Italy was in the possession of a few noble families; while the swarms of slaves left no occupation to the citizens except that of war. At this time a champion of the people arose, in the person of a young noble named Ti-be'ri-us Grac'chus, who being elected tribune, and noticing with grief and indignation the oppressions of the rich and the sufferings of the poor, determined to make an effort to redress these wrongs by reviving the Licinian laws [see page 199] (133 B.C.).*

Revival of the Licinian laws.

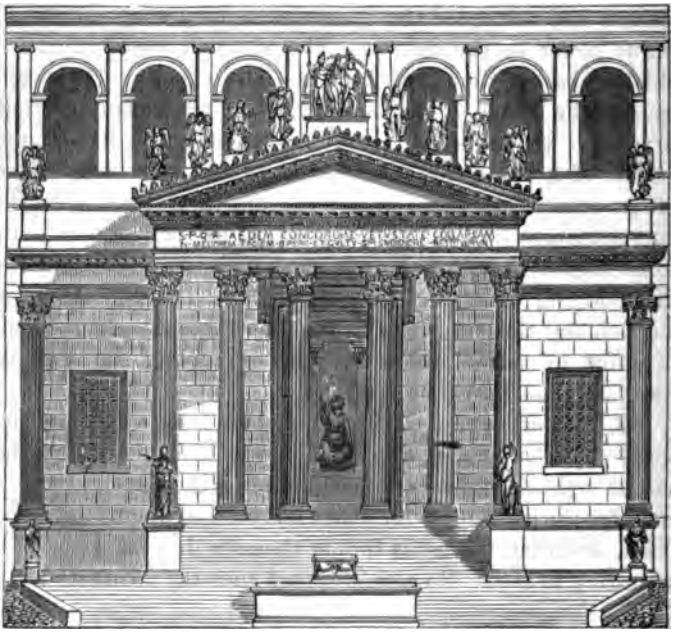
66. Following the provisions of these laws, Gracchus proposed that the persons who held public lands to which they had no right should vacate them, on receiving payment for the buildings which they had erected upon them, and that the lands should then be divided according to law. He also proposed that the treasures left to

Measures proposed by Gracchus.

* The speeches of Gracchus to the people were very effective, for he was a great orator. On one occasion he said: "The wild beasts in your land have their dens, but the soldiers of Italy have only water and air. Without houses or property, they, with their wives and children, are vagabonds. Your commanders deceive you when they bid you fight for your hearths and your gods: you have no hearths; you have no household gods. It is for the insolence and luxury of others that you shed your blood. You are called the lords of the world, and you do not possess a square foot of soil."

Tiberius and Caius Gracchus were the sons of that celebrated matron Cornelia who, though of illustrious family and possessing extensive accomplishments, was only proud of her distinction as the "Mother of the Gracchi." She it was who pointed to her sons, on a certain occasion, and remarked, "These are my jewels."

Rome by Attalus, king of Pergamus, should be laid out in the purchase of farming implements and cattle for the poor occupants of these lands. These propositions raised a great storm of indignation among the senators and other members of the aristocracy; and, while an election for tribunes was going on, in order to prevent the re-election of Gracchus



TEMPLE OF CONCORD.

they rushed into the assembly, under the lead of Scipio Nasica; and in the tumult Gracchus was slain. Three hundred of his friends perished with him, and their bodies were thrown into the Tiber. This was the first blood shed in civil strife at Rome since the time of the kings (133 B.C.).

67. The agrarian law, however, stood, and was partly *carried* into execution. This led to other troubles; and, ten

years afterward, Cai'us Gracchus, the brother of Tiberius, especially famed for his oratory, made another attempt to vindicate the rights of the lower orders against the encroachments of the aristocracy and the senate. He proposed that the portion of grain which accrued to the state from the provinces should be distributed among the people at a low rate, and brought forward several other measures in the popular interest. But he, too, fell a victim to the violence of his opponents; for, civil war having been declared by the senate, Gracchus and 3000 of his adherents were slain, by the orders of the consul (121 B.C.). After this massacre, there was a large confiscation of property, by means of which a temple was erected to Concord. [See page 222.] The Gracchi were branded by the aristocracy as seditious demagogues, but the people honored their memory.*

Caius Gracchus.

68. Jugurthine War. The shocking corruption of the aristocratic order, including the senate, was shown in the war against Ju-gur'tha, who, having murdered his two cousins, sons of Mi-cip'sa, a faithful ally of Rome, had usurped the throne of Numidia. These crimes he had been enabled to commit, after repeated complaints and entreaties made by the unfortunate princes, by bribing the members of the Roman senate; and he openly boasted of the power of his gold. At last, when the people would endure his outrageous wickedness no longer, war was declared against him (111 B.C.); but even then he succeeded in bribing the generals sent against him, and thus prevented defeat.

Jugurtha.

* "The law of Gracchus cut the patricians with a double edge. Their fortunes consisted in land and slaves; it questioned their titles to the public territories, and it tended to force emancipation by making their slaves a burden. A real crisis had come, such as hardly occurs to a nation in the progress of many centuries. Men are in the habit of proscribing Julius Cæsar as the destroyer of the Commonwealth. The civil wars, the revolutions of Cæsar, the miserable vicissitudes of the Roman emperors, the avarice of the nobles and the rabble, the crimes of the forum and the palace, all have their germ in the ill success of the reform of Gracchus."—*Bancroft.*

69. After the corrupt conduct of these generals had been discovered, the management of the war was intrusted to Me-tel'-lus, a man of great energy and military skill. Jugurtha was soon defeated, and compelled to flee for protection to the neighboring kingdom, Mau-ri-ta'ni-a. At this point, one of the greatest characters in Roman history steps upon the stage—the famous Caius Ma'ri-us,* who had thus far acted as the lieutenant of Metellus in this war. Now, notwithstanding his illiteracy and mean birth, he was suddenly raised by the people to the consulship, and placed in command of the army against Jugurtha. He soon brought the war to a close, having defeated and captured the wily and cruel Numidian (106 B.C.), whom he brought a captive to Rome. After being led, with his children, in triumph by Marius through the streets, Jugurtha was thrust into a dungeon, in the Mam'er-tine prison, and left to die of cold and hunger (104 B.C.).†

Defeat of Jugurtha.

Marius.

70. Invasion of the Cimbrians and Teutons. In the mean time, hordes of barbarians, from Germany, called the Cim'bri-ans and Teutons, invaded Gaul, and threatened Italy. After four Roman armies had been successively defeated by them, the command was given to Marius, who attacked the Teutons near the Rhone River, and gained so decided a victory over them, that they were almost annihilated (102 B.C.). The next year, having been appointed

Defeat of the Cimbrians.

* Caius Marius, the son of a poor day-laborer, was born near Arpinum, among the Latin hills, about 157 B.C. He served at the siege of Numantia under Scipio, who greatly admired his military talents. Indeed, on one occasion, being asked where the Romans would be able to find a general to take his place when he was gone, he replied, placing his hand upon the shoulder of Marius, "Here, perhaps."

† Marius set out for Italy, and, with his legions and their captives, entered Rome in triumph—a spectacle of which Jugurtha, in chains, and his unfortunate children, were the principal figures. When the procession was over, the captive king was led to a dungeon, under orders for his immediate execution. As he was about to be stripped of his ornaments and robes, the executioner, in haste to pluck the pendants from his ears, tore away the flesh, and thrust him naked into a dungeon below ground. He descended into this place with a smile, saying, 'What a cold *bath is here!*' He pined about six days, and expired."—*Ferguson's Roman Republic.*

consul for the fifth time, he marched against the Cimbrians, whom he also defeated with immense slaughter, in Cis-al'pine Gaul. By these two great victories, the tide of barbarian inundation was turned back for centuries, and Marius was deservedly hailed as the *Savior of his Country.**

71. A dreadful war broke out soon afterward (90 B.C.) between Rome and the Italian states, called the *Social War.* This was caused by the demand of the states for the rights of citizenship, which the senate refused. After nearly two years of war, and the destruction of about 300,000 Italians, the franchise was granted to all such as consented to lay down their arms; and tranquillity was restored.

Social war.

72. Mithridatic War. Among the eastern monarchs of this time, Mith-ri-da'tes, king of Pontus, the sixth of that name, had risen to great power by his wonderful genius and force of character. His extraordinary physical size, strength, and accomplishments were matched by his mental endowments and culture; for he was versed in all the learning of the East as well as of the Greeks; and, it is said, could converse in all the different languages spoken in his extensive dominions.† Already he had made many conquests in Asia Minor, which had in some degree brought him in collision with the Romans, when he conceived the idea of extending his empire toward the west, and announced himself as the liberator of the Hellenic people from the yoke of Rome.

Mithridates.

* "The human avalanche which for thirteen years had alarmed the nations from the Danube to the Ebro, from the Seine to the Po, rested beneath the sod, or toiled under the yoke of slavery. The forlorn hope of the German migration had performed its duty; the homeless people of the Cimbri and their comrades were no more."—*Mommsen.*

† "What really distinguishes Mithridates amidst the multitude of similar sultans is his boundless activity. He disappeared one fine morning from his palace, and remained unheard of for months; so that he was given over for lost. When he returned, he had wandered incognito through all Western Asia, and reconnoitered everywhere the country and the people. In like manner he was not only generally fluent in speech, but he administered justice to each of the twenty-two nations over which he ruled in its own language without needing an interpreter—a trait significant of the versatile *ruler of the many*-tongued East."—Mommsen.

At Ephesus he issued an order that all the Italians residing in Asia Minor should be put to death; and, as it is stated, 80,000 were accordingly massacred in a single night (88 B.C.).

73. Sul'la, afterward so celebrated for his contests with Marius, was sent into Greece to manage the war against him; and, after defeating him in several battles, compelled him to submit to humiliating conditions of peace (84 B.C.). The war was afterward renewed by Mithridates (74 B.C.), with a large and well-disciplined army, and a powerful fleet; but he suffered a terrible defeat from Lucullus, his army being almost annihilated. After another defeat he took refuge in Armenia, with his son-in-law Ti-gra'nes, then one of the most powerful monarchs in the East, who not only received him, but raised an immense army for his defense against the Romans. This vast host was defeated at Ti-gran-o-cer'ta [see Map V.] by Lucullus, with a force of only 12,000 men (69 B.C.); while, it is said, the army of Tigranes exceeded 200,000 men, of whom more than 50,000 were cavalry. The next spring (68 B.C.), Lucullus gained another victory over the enemy in Armenia, and probably would have captured the capital, but his soldiers, disgusted with his insatiable lust for the spoils of war, revolted; and he was, therefore compelled to retreat.

Sulla.

Roman victories.

74. Soon afterward, Mithridates collected a large force, and, while the mutiny in the army checked the operations of Lucullus, defeated the Romans. Pompey, afterward called the Great, then took the command; and in a short time subdued both Tigranes and Mithridates. The latter, driven from his throne and country, in order to escape death at the hands of his own son, who had revolted against him, put an end to his life (63 B.C.). The Romans felt as much joy at the news of his death as if they had gained a great victory.

Pompey.

Death of Mithridates.

FIRST CIVIL WAR.

75. The period of this war is especially noted for the beginning of those great contests for the supreme power which the ambitious leaders waged between each other, and which finally brought the Roman republic to destruction. When the Mithridatic war broke out, Marius expected to be selected by the senate to conduct it, and was greatly offended because the command was given to Sulla; for the latter, who had acted as his lieutenant in the war against Jugurtha, had grown so much into favor as to become his rival. Marius, therefore, by means of an intrigue, obtained the passage of a decree in the *comitia* of the tribes transferring the command to himself. Sulla refused to submit, but at the head of his legions marched to Rome, which he entered and occupied; and Marius was compelled to flee to save his life. Thus, for the first time in the history of the city, a Roman army encamped within its walls; and an example was set of using the military power against the civil, which was afterward so often followed (88 B.C.).

Marius and Sulla.

76. The aged Marius, who had been six times elected consul, and, as we have seen, had been hailed as the savior of his country, thus became a wretched fugitive, with a price set upon his head. At one place he was thrown into a dungeon, and a Cimbrian slave was sent to put him to death; but, it is said, that, as the assassin approached, the eyes of the old hero flashed fire, and he exclaimed: "Durst thou slay Caius Marius?" And the sword fell from the affrighted barbarian's hand, and he fled, muttering, "No, I cannot kill Caius Marius." The magistrates then released him, and he crossed to Africa, landing at the site of Carthage. There he received a message from the prætor, commanding him to leave. "Go tell the prætor," he replied, with a sigh, "that you have seen Caius Marius, a miserable fugitive, sitting amidst the ruins of Carthage."

Exile of Marius.

77. But the soothsayers, in his youth, it was said, had foretold that he would be seven times declared consul; and this prophecy was to be remarkably fulfilled.* After Sulla had departed from Rome to prosecute the war against Mithridates, one of the consuls, Cinna, who belonged to the Marian or popular party, obtaining control of a considerable force in southern Italy, marched to Rome. On hearing this, Marius immediately returned to Italy, and, with such forces as he could collect, united with Cinna. The city was occupied by the soldiery, and a dreadful massacre ensued, lasting five days. Many of the most distinguished citizens were put to death, Marius reveling in the slaughter. The next year he and Cinna were declared consuls without an election; but, tormented by a guilty conscience and exhausted by intemperance, he survived this last triumph only thirteen days, dying in his seventy-first year (86 B.C.).

Massacre by Marius.

78. The Marian party still continued to rule, till Sulla, returning from Asia, entered Italy with a large army (83 B.C.); but the leaders of the Marian party had made great preparations to oppose him. A dreadful war of two years ensued, during which the Samnites took up arms against Sulla. He was, however, triumphant over all his enemies, and after gaining several great victories, entered Rome its undisputed master. His first act was to massacre 6000 Samnite prisoners; and then commenced a fearful slaughter of all whom he deemed his enemies. Every day he issued a new list of those who might be put to death by any one; and, it is said, the porch of his house was kept full of heads. After this dreadful proscription, in which it is estimated 8000 citizens perished, he declared himself Perpetual

Massacre by Sulla.

* "He told his companions that, when he was very young, and lived in the country, an eagle's nest fell into his lap, with seven young ones in it. His parents, surprised at the sight, applied to the diviners, who answered that their son would be the most illustrious of men, and that he would seven times attain the highest office and authority in the country."—*Plutarch.*

Dictator. Having effected some reforms in the government, he resigned, to the surprise of all, the office of dictator, which he had filled about two years, and retired to private life (79 B.C.). A short time afterward, he died of a loathsome disease, occasioned by intemperance and debauchery. His memory was honored with a gorgeous funeral, and upon a monument erected to him was inscribed the epitaph, composed by himself: "I am Sulla the Fortunate, who in the course of my life have surpassed both friends and enemies—the former by the good, the latter by the evil I have done them."

Death of Sulla.

79. In this war Marius had been opposed by the patricians, while the Senate and its partisans had been on the side of Sulla. The party of Marius was thus sustained by the people, but that of Sulla by the aristocracy. The death of these two great chiefs did not end the strife. Ser-to'ri-us, one of the most distinguished of the Marian leaders, had taken refuge in Spain, and there established a power which for more than ten years defied all the efforts of the Senate. Pom'pey was sent against him; but it was only after the assassination of Sertorius that the insurgents could be subdued (72 B.C.).

Sertorius.

80. Servile War. In the mean time, Rome was confronted with a terrific danger. This was a slave insurrection. Spar'ta-cus, a Thracian, made captive in war, and afterward kept in a training-school for gladiators, at Capua, broke away from his place of bondage with a number of his fellow-prisoners, and fleeing to Mount Vesuvius, was joined by a vast number of slaves and outlaws of every description. Having collected a force of over 100,000 men, he moved northward, defeated the regular army in several engagements, and threatened Rome itself. At last he was met by a large force under Cras'sus, and his army cut to pieces, he himself being among the slain (71 B.C.). This was the second great slave revolt, one having, about sixty years

Spartacus.

before, broken out in Sicily, and been reduced only after frightful massacres and ravages. These insurrections were the natural result of the dreadful slave-system pursued in the Roman conquests.

81. At this time, Pompey and Crassus were the two leading men at Rome. The former, by his conduct during the civil war, his good fortune in Spain, and the timely assistance he had rendered against Spartacus, had contrived to acquire very great popularity.* Sulla had given to him, while yet a young man, the title of *Magnus*—the Great. Crassus exerted a powerful influence by means of his immense wealth, which he had craftily acquired by buying up the estates of the proscribed during the dictatorship of Sulla. Pompey being sent against the pirates of the Mediterranean, acted with so much energy and address that in three months he entirely cleared the seas of those robbers (66 B.C.)—a most important achievement, for the commerce of the Mediterranean had been wholly at their mercy, so that Italy could no longer export her products nor even obtain corn from her provinces.†

Pompey.

82. In the mean time, Lucullus had been winning victories over Mithridates and his son-in-law Tigranes, king of

* After the victory of Crassus over the forces of Spartacus, a considerable body of the insurgents escaping into Cisalpine Gaul were met by Pompey returning with his victorious troops from Spain, and were cut to pieces. Pompey on this occasion wrote to the Senate, stating "that Crassus had defeated the enemy in battle, but that he had cut up the war by the roots." Subsequently Pompey and Crassus "instituted throughout Apulia and Lucania a man-hunt such as there had never been before, to crush out the last sparks of the mighty conflagration. Along the road from Capua to Rome the six thousand crosses bearing captured slaves testified to the re-establishment of order and to the renewed victory of acknowledged right over its living property that had rebelled."

† The power of these freebooters extended from the Pillars of Hercules to the shores of Cilicia. They formed a great piratical state, and had been recognized as a political power, for Mithridates had formed an alliance with them. Everywhere they had rock castles where they concealed their wives, their children, and their plunder, which they called military spoils. They made it their boast that they were at war with the world; and while they expected crucifixion in every Roman seaport, they hesitated not to inflict the same merciless punishment on their captives, when the latter could not purchase their release.

Armenia, but was stopped in his career of success by a mutiny of his troops. Pompey was, therefore, sent into Asia, with the powers of a despot, to bring the war to a close. This he accomplished in less than three years, subduing both the revolted kings, and reducing Pontus to a Roman province (63 B.C.). He also reduced Syria, and took Jerusalem, dethroning the reigning king of Judea, and making the kingdom tributary to Rome. Having regulated all the provinces of the east, with the authority of an absolute potentate, he returned triumphantly to Italy (61 B.C.). [See p. 69.]

Conquests by Pompey.

83. Conspiracy of Catiline. While Pompey was in Asia, the famous conspiracy of Cat'i-line occurred. The late civil wars had left many needy and reckless characters who had profited by the lawless violence of that time, and who longed for its repetition in order that they might gain power and riches. This dangerous class found a leader in Lucius Catiline, an audacious and unprincipled man, possessing great physical strength as well as mental vigor and culture, for he was by birth a patrician. Having held various offices in which he became notorious by his reckless extortion and other crimes, he aspired to the consulate; and being disappointed, formed a plot to murder the consuls and seize the government. Failing in this, while Cicero, the orator,* was consul, he renewed the scheme; designing not only to murder the consul but to burn and pillage the city.

Character of Catiline.

Plot.

84. Fortunately this dreadful plot became known to Cicero, who denounced Catiline and his associates with such scathing eloquence in the Senate, that he was compelled to flee

* Cicero, noted for his eloquence and learning, was among the most illustrious men of this time. He was born at Arpinum, 106 B.C., of a plebeian family, and enjoyed the instruction of the most eminent lawyers and orators of the day. He also studied Greek philosophy under the best teachers in Rome, and afterward in Athens itself. Previous to attaining the consulship, he had filled nearly every inferior office, and had *greatly distinguished* himself as an orator.

from Rome. His confederates, who had been left in the city to consummate the wicked scheme, were betrayed by some Gauls whom they had endeavored to gain over to their service, and being immediately apprehended were put to death, through the courage and promptitude of Cicero. Catiline, at the head of a numerous force, which he had succeeded in collecting, attempted to reach Gaul, but being overtaken in Etruria, was defeated and slain (62 B.C.).

Defeat of the conspirators.

85. A few months after this, Pompey returned from the Mithridatic war laden with the spoils of the East. His triumph of two days was the most splendid that Rome had ever seen; for he had conquered fifteen nations, and more than three hundred princes walked before his triumphal car. Yet the Senate, under the lead of Cato, refused to ratify his acts; and, irritated by this, he joined the popular party. The most prominent leader of that party at this time was Julius Cæsar,* then just rising into notice and power. This man, who afterward became the greatest character in Roman history, had already gained distinction in Spain; and in Rome had won over the people by his lavish and princely munificence. Seven years before, when holding the office of an inferior magistrate, he had dared to restore the trophies of Marius,

Triumph of Pompey.

Julius Cæsar.

* Caius Julius Cæsar was born in 100 B.C., and was a descendant of an old patrician family. His aunt married Marius; and, at the age of seventeen, he married the daughter of Cinna, the distinguished Marian partisan. During the time of Sulla's proscription, Cæsar's name was put on the list of those to be slain; but some of the nobles interceded in his favor. "I grant your request," said the dictator: "but you will find many a Marius in that young man." Once, while on his way to Rhodes, the pirates captured him, and demanded twenty talents for his ransom. "I will pay you fifty," he replied, "but as soon as I am free I will have you all crucified." When released, he collected a force, pursued the robbers, and kept his word. Thus had he already shown the irresistible energy of his character. In the eulogy which he pronounced on his aunt Julia, he said: "My aunt derived her descent by her mother from a race of kings, and by her father from the immortal gods. In our family is the sacred majesty of kings, who are masters of the world, and the divine majesty of gods, who are the masters of kings." *This was in 72 B.C.*

thus delighting the old veterans, who stood gazing upon the statue of their beloved leader with tears in their eyes.

First Triumvirate.

86. With the greatest adroitness, Cæsar reconciled the differences existing between Pompey and the wealthy Crassus, and succeeded in forming with them an alliance by the terms of which the three were to support each other's plans and interests (60 B.C.). To cement the union of Pompey more strongly with himself, he gave to him his only daughter Julia in marriage. This secret cabal is known in history as the First Triumvirate [association of three men]. By the support of his two powerful confederates, Cæsar obtained the consulship; and at its close the Senate passed a decree by which he was assigned the proconsulship of Gaul, with the command of an army to subdue the barbarians, some of whom had commenced hostile movements, threatening the Roman province.

Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.

87. Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul lasted about eight years; and, in that period, he not only succeeded in subjugating all the warlike races of that country, but, crossing the Rhine, gained great victories over the bold and hardy Germans. He also passed into Britain, and defeated the fierce and warlike inhabitants, who strove with the greatest intrepidity to repel the invaders from their island (55 B.C.). By 50 B.C., his province was completely subdued; and it is computed that in these eight years of war, nearly a million of Gauls and Germans were sacrificed, Cæsar never showing the least mercy to the barbarians, while toward his fellow-citizens he invariably manifested remarkable mildness and humanity. He captured more than 800 cities, and defeated 300 tribes.

Conquest of Gaul.

88. In the mean time, Crassus had obtained the proconsular government of Syria, and had undertaken an ex-

pedition against the Par'thians, an eastern race who, fir appearing near the Caspian Sea, had at this time conquere the vast region extending from the Euphrates t the Indus. In this expedition Crassus was d feated and slain (53 B.C.).* This disaster e posed the Roman provinces in the east to the attacks of th Parthians; but Cassius (*kash'e-us*), the lieutenant of Crassu prosecuted the war two years longer, and gaining a decide victory over the Parthians, checked their further advanc westward.

Defeat of Crassus.

THE GREAT CIVIL WAR.

89. Pompey, although made proconsul of Spain, remaine in Rome, of which, after the death of the violent and unprir cipled demagogue Clodius, he became the ur limited master. One of the members of th triumvirate having been removed by death, an Pompey having become intensely jealous of Cæsar, the triun virate was practically dissolved. Pompey, determining t supplant Cæsar and obtain the dictatorship, went over to th party of the Senate which he had hitherto opposed, and ol tained in succession two decrees: first, that Cæsar shoul forthwith disband his army; and second, as he had not obeyed that he should be proclaimed an outlaw, while Pompey himsel all the while retained his army in Spain, as we as other forces in Italy, in order to enforce hi ambitious designs. Cæsar, seeing that he coul only oppose violence by violence, at once broke up his camp and crossing the river Ru'bi-con, the boundary of his prov ince, entered Italy, with a small army, afterward reinforce

Pompey's measures.

Crossing of the Rubicon.

* Crassus, after his defeat, was treacherously induced to meet the Parthi chieftain to arrange terms of capitulation; and was barbarously assassinate The victor sent the head and hand of Crassus to the Parthian king, who, it related, caused molten gold to be poured into its mouth, in mockery of t Roman's avarice. The wealth of Crassus was enormous, amounting at his dea to about $10,000,000.

by detachments from Gaul. Thus was commenced the *Second Civil War.*

90. Pompey, with what forces he had, and accompanied by many of the senators and others, fled to Brundi'sium, from which port, having collected a large fleet, he sailed to Epirus. Cæsar soon overran Italy; and then proceeded to Spain, where, with consummate ability, he speedily compelled Pompey's generals to surrender, and annexed most of their forces to his own. Returning, he then crossed to Epirus to give battle to Pompey. No general engagement, however, took place till the next year; when, on the plains of Phar-sa'li-a,* the battle was joined, and Cæsar, although with forces far inferior in number, gained a decisive victory (48 B.C.). This battle, according to Cæsar's own statement, cost him only two hundred soldiers; while on Pompey's side there fell about fifteen thousand. Pompey fled to Egypt, but was treacherously assassinated, by order of the Egyptian court, as he was about to step ashore.†

Defeat and death of Pompey.

POMPEY THE GREAT.

* The battle was fought near the city of Pharsalus, in that part of Thessaly called Pharsalia. Hence it is sometimes called the battle of Pharsalus. Pompey's army was confident of victory, and great preparations had been made for celebrating it. Cæsar says in his *Commentaries on the Civil War:* "On entering Pompey's camp, we found tables ready covered, side-boards loaded with plate, and tents adorned with branches of myrtle; that of L. Lentulus, with some others, was shaded with ivy. Everything gave proofs of the highest luxury, and an assured expectation of victory; whence it was easy to see that they little dreamed of the issue of that day, since, intent only on voluptuous refinements, they pretended, with troops immersed in luxury, to oppose Cæsar's army, accustomed to fatigue, and inured to the want of necessaries."

† "Thus fell the illustrious chief whom alone of all their champions the Romans had distinguished by the appellation of the Great, a title which seemed peculiarly

91. Cæsar, with his characteristic promptitude, pursued Pompey to Egypt, and on arriving there was presented with the head and ring of his great rival. He accepted the ring, but turned aside with tears from the mournful and ghastly spectacle of the gory head, and ordered Pompey's remains to be burned with due honor. He then entered Alexandria. The succession to the throne of Egypt was, at that time, in dispute between the young King Ptolemy and his sister, the celebrated Cle-o-pa'tra. Cæsar, influenced by the fascinations of the latter, decided in her favor, and thus incurred the hostility of Ptolemy's adherents, who raised a fearful insurrection against him. This, however, in a few months Cæsar reduced, and confirmed Cleopatra on the throne. During this war at Alexandria, Cæsar set fire to the Egyptian fleet, and the flames having extended to the public library, that immense collection of more than 100,000 volumes, containing copies of all the most valuable works of ancient times, was destroyed (48 B.C.).

Cæsar in Egypt.

Cleopatra.

92. While Cæsar was in Egypt, rumors spread that he had been slain, and the wildest confusion prevailed for a time throughout the empire, but especially in Italy, where his presence was greatly needed. But from Egypt he proceeded against Pharna'ces, son of the great Mithridates, who had risen in rebellion and seized upon Armenia and Colchis. Cæsar speedily defeated him at Zic'la, in Pontus, and announced his victory to the Roman Senate in three words—*Veni, vidi, vici* (I came, I saw, I conquered). In two months all Asia was restored to tranquillity, and Cæsar then returned to Rome, to assume the office of dictator. Proceeding next to Africa, he gained a great victory at Thap'-

Other victories.

appropriate to one whose rapid conquests in Asia could only be paralleled by those of the Macedonian Alexander. His fate continued to point a moral to the latest period of the Empire, and its consummation deserved to be regarded as the most *tragic incident in Roman history.*"—*Merivale's History of the Romans.*

sus over the forces of Scipio, who, assisted by Ju'ba, king of Mauritania, still adhered to the party of the aristocracy and the Senate. Cato, called the Stoic, on account of his stern virtue, seeing that all was lost, and that the Roman republic was now at an end, committed suicide at Utica (46 B.C.).*

93. Cæsar, having formed Numidia into a Roman province, returned to Rome, where he celebrated with extraordinary magnificence four triumphs—over Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Africa. The Romans had never before seen so magnificent a procession. A great Gallic chief, the son of Juba, of Mauritania, and Arsinoe, Cleopatra's sister, walked before his car. Cæsar lavished immense sums of money on the people, and also gave feasts and splendid shows.† A general amnesty was then declared, and the soldiers were rewarded with liberal donations. But before he could settle affairs at Rome, he was called to Spain, where the two sons of Pompey had raised an army against him. These he defeated in the severe battle of Munda, which closed the war. Having thus become master of Rome, he determined to lay aside the sword and cultivate the arts of peace. He instituted many important reforms in the laws and government, rectified the calendar, and formed plans for many great and useful works, among which were the building of a new senate-house, a grand theater, and a public library. He encouraged agriculture, tried to revive the Licinian laws, and caused laws to be enacted regulating bankruptcy, usury, and luxury.‡

Cæsar's triumph.

* "The constitutional struggle was at an end; and that it was so was proclaimed by Marcus Cato when he fell on his sword at Utica."—*Mommsen.*

† These were the great shows of the amphitheater, consisting of those cruel gladiatorial exhibitions, mixed with the combats of wild beasts, in which the Roman people delighted. On this occasion, the grand *vela'rium*, or awning of a thousand colors, made of the richest silk, the product of eastern looms, protected the spectators from the sun. Thus were the people amused and quieted while they were being robbed of their liberty; but, at the same time, they were enjoying the spoils of enslaved and plundered nations, the victims of Roman ambition, rapine, and avarice.

‡ "Cæsar was monarch, but he never played the king. Even when absolute lord of Rome, he retained the deportment of the party leader. Perfectly pliant

94. While engaged in these reforms, a stop was sudd put to his magnificent career. Notwithstanding the moc tion with which he acted, his generosity tc enemies, and the consideration and kindness which he treated all parties, there was an ur current of dissatisfaction and hostility; for he was, in ev thing but the name, a king; it was said that he designe assume even the royal title crown. A conspiracy was, tl fore, formed against him l large body of the nobles, pr nent among whom were Br and Cassius, the former his trusted friend. At a meetin the Senate held on the 15tl March (the Ides of March), was attacked by the conspira and fell pierced with twenty-t wounds (44 B.C.). He had fended himself for a time, the assassins commenced to assail him; but, when he Brutus among them, he exclaimed, "And thou, too, Brut and yielded to his fate, falling at the base of Pompey's stat

Death of Cæsar.

JULIUS CÆSAR.
(From a Roman coin.)

95. The conspirators excused their crime on the plea they were freeing Rome from a dangerous tyr but they were, doubtless, actuated rather by than by patriotism, with the exception of Bru who sacrificed friendship to the love of his country. Bes

The conspirators.

and smooth, easy and charming in conversation, complaisant toward ever it seemed as if he wished to be nothing but the first among his peers."—*Mom*

* "The assassins stabbed him through and through, for they had pledged selves, one and all, to bathe their daggers in his blood. Brutus himself recei wound in their eagerness and trepidation. The victim reeled a few paces, pr by the blows he received on every side, till he fell dead at the foot of Pom *statue."—Merivale.*

most of the leaders in the conspiracy were guilty of base ingratitude; for they had been freely pardoned their former opposition to Cæsar, and placed in offices of power and emolument. Cassius, indeed, had been one of the most active of Pompey's adherents.

96. Cæsar was probably the greatest man that Rome ever produced. He was not only an able general and a consummate statesman and politician, but a splendid orator, a fine scholar, and an elegant writer. His history of the Gallic campaigns, styled the "Commentaries," is a complete model for that kind of composition. His knowledge of human nature seems to have been almost perfect, for he swayed the minds of all who came within his influence, to an extent rarely equaled and never surpassed. The activity of his intellect was marvelous. Pliny says, "He could be writing and reading, dictating and listening all at the same time. He was wont to occupy four amanuenses at once, and had been known to employ as many as seven." He is described as "pale in complexion, of a tall and spare figure, with dark piercing eyes and an aquiline nose, with scanty hair and without a beard." He may be truly said to have completed the destruction of the liberties of his country; for the battles of Pharsalia, Thapsus, and Munda established the Roman Empire, and Julius Cæsar virtually became its first emperor, as he is reckoned the first of the "Twelve Cæsars."

Character of Cæsar.

97. After the murder of Cæsar, the conspirators fled to the capitol, where they remained until they entered into an agreement with Mark An'tony, the consul, and a particular friend of Cæsar, that all his laws should remain in force, that his will should be carried into effect, and that his body should be honored with a public funeral. Accordingly, the body was carried into the forum; and Mark Antony pronounced over it a funeral oration, in the course of which he exposed the bleeding wounds to the people, and so worked *upon* their sympathies, that they arose

Antony's oration.

against the conspirators and compelled them to flee from the city.

98. Antony, having thus become master of Rome, produced Cæsar's will, and other papers which he represented as containing his acts and wishes. These he made such use of as best served his purpose, to excite popular feeling in favor of Cæsar's party. Thus he excited the opposition of the senatorial party, led by Cicero, who was heard to exclaim: "The tyrant is dead, but the tyranny still lives." Another actor, however, now appeared on the stage, and one destined to play a great part. This was Caius Octavius, then a young man, the nephew and adopted son of the great Julius, who had been appointed heir in his last testament. He now (May) appeared in Rome, and demanded the property left to him by his adopted father (44 B.C.).

Antony master of Rome.

Octavius in Rome.

MARK ANTONY.

99. Octavius did everything he could to win over the people, giving them public shows, and even borrowing money in order to pay Cæsar's legacies. He cultivated the esteem and confidence of Cicero, and conciliated the Senate, showing the greatest appearance of hostility to the ambitious schemes of Antony. The latter was declared a public enemy by the Senate, and was boldly attacked by Cicero, who pronounced against him a series of magnificent orations, which have been styled, in imitation of those of Demosthenes, the *Philippics*. Cicero was sanguine that the republic could be re-established, and he was unremitting in his efforts to effect this result; for, though fond of

His artful policy.

Cicero.

praise and distinction, he was at heart a true patriot. Circumstances were, however, working against him, and neutralizing all his exertions.

100. While these things were in progress in Rome, Antony was in Cisalpine Gaul, where he was defeated by the two consuls; but both of them being slain, Octavius took the command, while Antony formed a union with Lep'i-dus, a general of great experience and influence, then stationed in Transalpine Gaul. In the mean time, the aristocratic party in the Senate withdrew the command from Octavius, and refused him the consulate; whereupon he approached the city with his army, and compelled the Senate to accede to his wishes.

Antony and Lepidus.

Octavius consul.

Second Triumvirate.

101. Soon afterward Octavius entered into a negotiation with Antony and Lepidus, and arranged for an interview, the result of which was the formation of the *Second Triumvirate*, the agreement being that the three were to keep possession of the supreme control of the government for five years, assigning the provinces, and appointing the magistrates as they pleased (43 B.C.). A dreadful proscription and massacre followed the formation of this league, each of the triumvirs inserting in the list all whom he deemed hostile and wished to be put to death. Not fewer than three hundred senators and two thousand knights were among the proscribed; and one of the victims sacrificed to the hatred of Antony was Cicero, who was assassinated by the emissaries of the triumvir, as he was endeavoring to escape.

Cicero.

Terms of the agreement.

Massacre.

102. Having taken vengeance upon their enemies in Italy, the triumvirs turned their attention to Brutus and Cassius, who, with the design of restoring the liberties of their country, had succeeded in making themselves masters of all the eastern part of the empire. Antony and Octavius crossed to Macedonia and engaged the republican forces at Philip'pi, where Cassius and Brutus were successively defeated, each slaying himself at the close of the battle (42 B.C.).* These victories left the Triumvirate in absolute control of the empire. At the expiration of the five years, the triumvirate was renewed; but soon afterward Lepidus attempted to gain the power for himself, and was deposed (36 B.C.).

Defeat of Brutus and Cassius.

103. Antony being visited by Cleopatra in Asia, returned with her to Egypt, and surrendered himself to the wiles of that artful beauty.† At last, after neglecting his duty for years,

* "As long as there seemed a chance that the *godlike stroke* would be justified by success, Brutus claimed the glory of maintaining a righteous cause; but when all hope fled, he could take leave of philosophy and life together, and exclaim, 'I once dreamed that virtue is a thing; I find her only a name, and the mere slave of fortune.' He had blamed Cato for flying from misery by self-murder; but he learnt to justify the same desperate act when he contemplated committing it himself."—*Merivale.* Plutarch says that, sitting in his tent, one evening before the battle, he saw a strange figure enter, and stand by his side. "Who art thou?" he exclaimed. "I am thy evil genius," replied the figure; "thou shalt see me again at Philippi."

† "When Antony first set out on his expedition against the Parthians, he sent orders to Cleopatra to meet him in Cilicia, that she might answer some accusations which had been laid against her of assisting Cassius in the war. Though she had received many pressing letters of invitation from Antony and his friends, she held him in such contempt that she by no means took the most expeditious method of traveling. She sailed along the river Cydnus in a most magnificent galley. The stern was covered with gold, the sails were of purple, and the oars were silver. These, in their motion, kept time to the music of flutes, and pipes, and harps. The queen, in the dress and character of Venus, lay under a canopy embroidered with gold, of the most exquisite workmanship; while boys, like painted cupids, stood fanning her on each side of the sofa. Her maids were of the most distinguished beauty, and, habited like the Nereids and the Graces, assisted in the steerage and conduct of the vessel. The fragrance of burning incense was diffused along the shores, which were covered with multitudes of people. Some followed the procession; and such numbers went down from the city to see it, that Antony was at last left alone on the tribunal. A rumor was soon spread that Venus was come to feast

he gave great offense to Octavius by divorcing his sister Octavia, in order to marry the Egyptian queen, and displeased the Roman people by his conduct in Egypt. This brought on a war, which Octavius directed the Senate to declare against Cleopatra. The war thus caused was ended by the naval battle of Actium (*ak'she-um*), Antony and Cleopatra being totally defeated (31 B.C.). Fleeing to Egypt, Antony stabbed himself, and Cleopatra put an end to her life (it is said, by means of a venomous asp), in order to prevent being compelled to grace the triumph of Octavius.* Her death terminated the sovereignty of the Ptolemies, which had existed about three centuries (323–31 B.C.).

Antony and Cleopatra.

Battle of Actium.

104. Egypt having been made a Roman province, and plundered of its immense treasures in order to supply Octavius with funds to reward his soldiers, he returned to Rome, where he was formally invested by the Senate with absolute authority, receiving the title of Augustus (29 B.C.). The date of this event is properly chosen as the era of the commencement of the Roman Empire. Subsequently, the government was merely a military despotism, under which the Romans were hopeless of relief; they, therefore, made no effort to restore the republican constitution. Augustus celebrated the restoration of peace by closing the gates of the temple of Janus, for the third time in the history of Rome.†

Octavius master of the empire.

with Bacchus, for the benefit of Asia. Antony sent to invite her to supper; but she thought it his duty to wait upon her, and, to show his politeness on her arrival, he complied."—*Plutarch.*

* "When the figure of Cleopatra was afterward carried in the triumph of Octavius, she was represented reclining on a couch with the asp clinging to either arm, and a mortal sleep stealing slowly through every limb."—*Merivale.*

† "Octavius, in a little time, when he had allured to his interest the soldiery by a profusion of largesses, the people by distributions of corn, and the minds of men in general by the sweets of peace, snowed more aspiring views. By degrees, and almost imperceptibly, he drew into his own hands the authority of the Senate, the functions of the magistrates, and the administration of the laws. To these encroachments no opposition was made."—*Tacitus.*

Review Outline.

Chronology.	
Roman Kingdom. 753 B.C.	One of the Latin tribes—the Rambians, or Romans—made a settlement on the Tiber River, which by the addition of other Latin cantons soon increased in influence and numbers. This became the famous city of Rome. It was at first under a kingly government, which, according to the traditionary history, lasted through seven reigns,
509 B.C.	ending with that of Tarquin.
Roman Republic. 509-29 B.C.	The struggles between the two orders—the patricians and the plebeians, or the rich and the poor
FIRST PERIOD. 509-340 B.C.	—were the most prominent events in Roman history for about a century and a half. The patricians were obliged to make many concessions to the plebeians, of which the principal were the fol-
494 B.C.	lowing: The appointment of the tribunes of the people, and the conferring upon them of the *veto*
493 B.C.	power; the passage of the Icilian law, making
486 B.C.	their persons sacred; the agrarian law of Spurius
471 B.C.	Cassius; the Publilian law of Volero, which gave the election of the tribunes to the people; the
445 B.C	right of intermarriage between patricians and plebeians; and the Licinian laws, which admitted
366 B.C.	plebeians to the consulship, restricted the holding of the public lands, and partly relieved the bur-
451 B.C.	dens of debtors. The celebrated code of laws, called the Twelve Tables, was framed during this
390 B.C.	period. Rome was taken and burned by the Gauls.
SECOND PERIOD. 340-264 B.C.	During three fourths of a century succeeding the close of the first period, the Romans were engaged in the conquest of Italy. They waged
343-295 B.C.	four wars with the Samnites; subdued Latium;
339 B.C.	vanquished the combined forces of the Etrurians and Gauls; and, though at first defeated by the
280 B.C.	invader Pyrrhus, they finally gained a great vic-
275 B.C.	tory over his forces at Beneventum. Soon after

264 B.C.	all the tribes and nations of Italy submitted to the Roman power.
THIRD PERIOD.	The *period of foreign conquests* succeeded, lasting
264–133 B.C.	about 130 years. The Punic wars, which ended
First Punic War.	in the conquest and destruction of Carthage, ex-
264–241 B.C.	tended nearly to the end of this period. The principal events of the First of these wars were the following:
255 B.C.	The defeat of the Roman general Regulus.
251 B.C.	The defeat of the Carthaginian Hamilcar.
241 B.C.	This war ended with the submission of the Carthaginians.
Second Punic War.	The chief events of the Second Punic War were the
218–202 B.C.	following:
218 B.C.	The Romans were defeated by Hannibal at the Ticinus, the Trebia, and Lake Trasymenus.
216 B.C.	The great battle of Cannæ, a disastrous defeat for the Romans.
212 B.C.	The taking of Syracuse by Marcellus.
207 B.C.	The defeat of Hasdrubal, brother of Hannibal.
202 B.C.	The defeat of Hannibal by Scipio at Zama.
	Carthage at the close of the war gave up Spain, agreed to pay the expenses of the war, and, in fact, became tributary to Rome. Hannibal died,
196 B.C.	by his own hand, in exile a few years afterward.
	The conquest of Macedonia soon followed, the last king, Perseus, being defeated and taken prisoner
168 B.C.	in the battle of Pydna.
146 B.C.	Greece became a Roman province.
146 B.C.	The third Punic war ended in the taking and total destruction of Carthage. The taking of Numantia brought to a close a long and fierce war with
133 B.C.	the native tribes in Spain.
FOURTH PERIOD.	The period of internal dissensions followed that of
133–29 B.C.	foreign conquests. It opened with a renewal of the agrarian struggles, in the attempt to revive the Licinian laws by Tiberius Gracchus. The
133 B.C.	patricians opposed the measure, and Gracchus was slain. His brother Caius shared the same
121 B.C.	fate, a few years afterward.
111–106 B.C.	The war with Jugurtha occupied several years, and

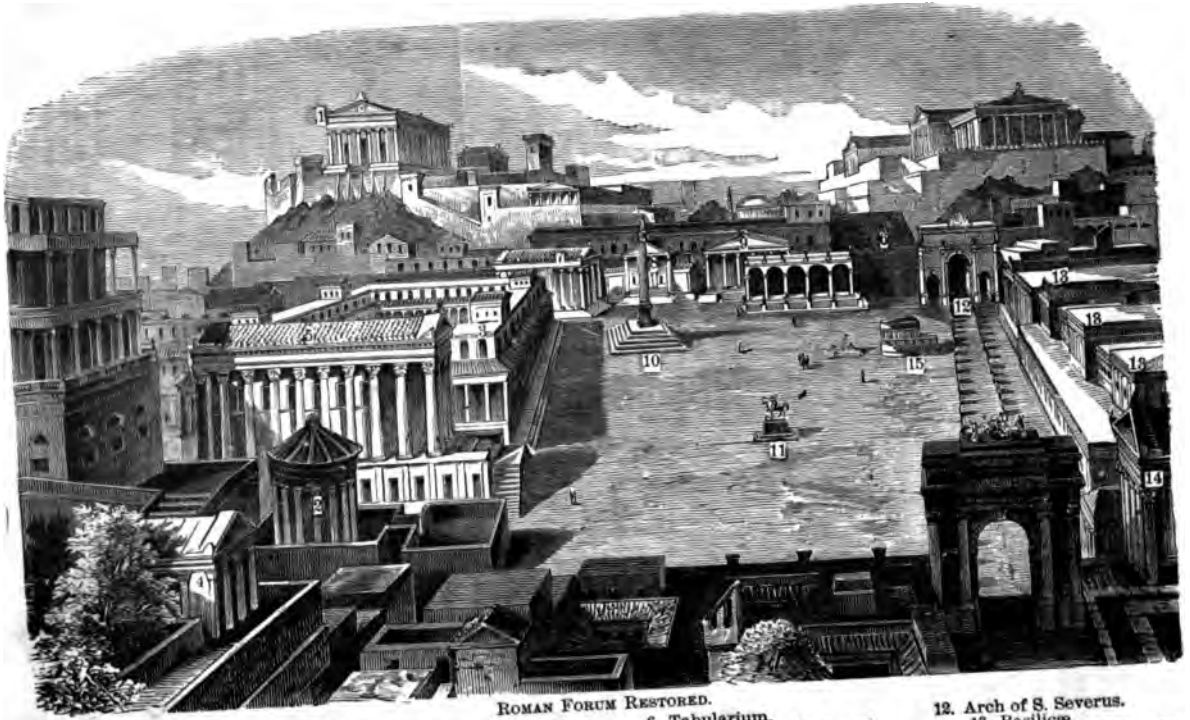
102 B.C. was followed by the invasions of the Cimbrians and Teutons, who were repulsed by Marius.

88–63 B.C. The Mithridatic war was a long contest carried on in the East against the king of Pontus, and was terminated by his death.

88–79 B.C. The *first civil war* was brought on by the dissensions between Marius and Sulla. The former, having gained possession of Rome, ordered a
86 B.C. massacre of his opponents; but died soon after-
83 B.C. ward. Sulla, in turn triumphing, retaliated with
81 B.C. slaughter, and made himself perpetual dictator.
62 B.C. Pompey, after making great conquests in the East, returned in triumph to Rome, joined the popular party with Cæsar, just rising into power,
60 B.C. and together with Crassus, formed the *First Triumvirate.* Cæsar returned from his province, Gaul, whence after eight years of victorious warfare
58–50 B.C. against the natives, crossing the Rubicon into Italy,
49 B.C. returned to Rome in order to check the intrigues of Pompey against him. A war ensued between these two ambitious generals, which resulted in the de-
48 B.C. feat of Pompey at Pharsalia. The adherents of
46 B.C. Pompey under Scipio were defeated at Thapsus, and the sons of Pompey were vanquished in Spain, after which Cæsar found himself the master of Rome. But a conspiracy having been formed against him by Brutus and Cassius, he
44 B.C. was assassinated in the Senate-house. Octavius, his adopted son, formed the *second triumvirate*
43 B.C. with Mark Antony and Lepidus, and caused their opponents in Rome to be put to death. Octavius
42 B.C. and Antony defeated Brutus and Cassius, in the battle of Philippi. Antony then went to the East, where he made the acquaintance of Cleopatra, the Egyptian queen, through whose influence he divorced his wife Octavia, sister of Octavius, and in other respects displeased the Roman people. The war that followed was decided by the battle of Ac-
31 B.C. tium, in which Antony and Cleopatra were defeated. Egypt became a Roman province; and Octavius, on his return to Rome, was invested with ab-
29 B.C. solute authority under the title of *Augustus Cæsar.*

Contemporaneous Events.

Cent.	B.C.	Rome.	Greece.	Other Nations.
8th.	776	.....	First Olympiad.	
	753	Foundation of Rome.		
	747	.....	.....	Era of Nabonassar.
	743	.....	First Messenian War.	
	734	.....	Syracuse founded.	
	721	.....	.....	Samaria taken.
	720	.....	.....	Lydians in Asia Minor.
7th.	685	.....	Second Messenian War.	
	672	Tullus Hostilius.		
	640	Ancus Martius.		
	625	.....	.....	Medes take Nineveh.
	594	.....	Draco at Athens.	
	618	Tarquin the Elder.		
6th.	594	.....	Solon at Athens.	
	588	.....	.....	Jerusalem taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
	560	.....	Pisistratus at Athens.	
	546	.....	.....	Cyrus subdues Crœsus.
	538	.....	.....	Babylon taken by Cyrus
	534	Tarquin the Proud.		
	525	.....	.....	Pelusium taken by Cambyses.
	510	.....	Hippias expelled from Athens.	
	500	Tarquins expelled.		
5th.	495	.....	Miletus taken by Darius	
	494	Creation of Tribunes.		
	485	Coriolanus	.....	Accession of Xerxes.
	471	Law of Volero	Themistocles banished	
	464	.....	.....	Death of Xerxes.
	449	Decemvirate abolished.	Death of Cimon.	
4th.	394	Romans take Veii.	Battle of Coronea.	
	359	.....	Accession of Philip of Macedon.	
	346	.....	Sacred War ends.	
	343	Samnite War begins.		
	323	.....	Lamian War	Death of Alexander the Great.
	321	Battle of Caudine Forks		
	307	.....	Demetrius Phalereus expelled from Athens	
	305	Samnites subdued.		
	301	.....	.....	Battle of Ipsus.
3d.	280	Pyrrhus invades Italy..	Gauls invade Greece.	Seleucus assassinated.
	241	End of First Punic War.	Aratus.—Agis.....	Sicily made a Roman province.
	221	.....	Sparta taken by Antigonus.	Kingdoms of Parthia and Bactria founded.
	218	Second Punic War begins		
	213	.....	Aratus poisoned.	
	212	Syracuse taken.		
	205	Scipio in Spain	Philopœmen.	
2d.	183	.....	Death of Philopœmen.	Death of Hannibal.
	168	.....	Battle of Pydna.....	Revolt of Jews under Judas Maccabeus.
	146	Carthage taken.	Corinth taken.	



ROMAN FORUM RESTORED.

1. Temple of Jupiter.
2. Temple of Vesta.
3. Basilica Julia.
4. [illegible]
6. Tabularium.
7, 8, 9. Temples of Saturn, of Vespasian, of Concord.
10. Column of Phocas.
11. Statue of Domitian.
12. Arch of S. Severus.
13. Basilicæ.
14. Temple of Antoninus and Faustina.
15. Rostra.

SECTION IV.

Roman Civilization.

105. In treating of this extensive subject, within the narrow limits here permitted, it will not be possible to trace the progressive development of Roman civilization during the seven centuries that preceded the time of Augustus. At first, the Roman character and mode of life were characterized by extreme austerity and simplicity; but, in the later periods, these gave place to refinement and luxury, in imitation of Greek manners, and under the influence of the vast wealth which the spoils of conquered nations brought into Rome.

Change in Roman manners.

106. Rome had grown to be the metropolis of a vast empire, which contained, when Augustus reached the pinnacle of his power, about one hundred millions of people; while the population of the imperial city must have numbered, at the time of its greatest splendor, at least two millions, representing not only the Roman, but the Greek and Oriental civilizations. Its magnificent aqueducts, baths, amphitheaters, temples, and other edifices made it a scene of wonder to the visitor from foreign lands, and enabled it to cope in grandeur with the great and pompous cities of ancient nations. This was especially true of it after the rule of Augustus, who boasted that he "found the city brick, and left it marble."* A few of the most prominent objects of Rome will be referred to.

Growth of Rome.

107. The Forum, or place of public meetings, and the great market of the city, should first be mentioned. Here

* "Rome remained, even to the end of the republic, a network of crooked, narrow lanes, along which shops and houses of poor and mean appearance were constructed. There were not more than two streets in Rome suitable for heavy carriages to pass in, and in the others the litters of the wealthy struggled to force their way through the dense crowd."—*Leighton's History of Rome.*

was the Senate-House; the temple of Janus, built of bronze, the gates of which were closed only in time of peace; the temples of Vesta, of Concord, of Saturn, and of Castor and Pollux; the hall of records (*Tabula'rium*); the prison (*carcer*);* the courts for

The Roman Forum.

TEMPLE OF JUPITER CAPITOLINUS.

the administration of justice (*basil'icæ*);† the statues of distinguished statesmen and warriors, and the spoils of conquered

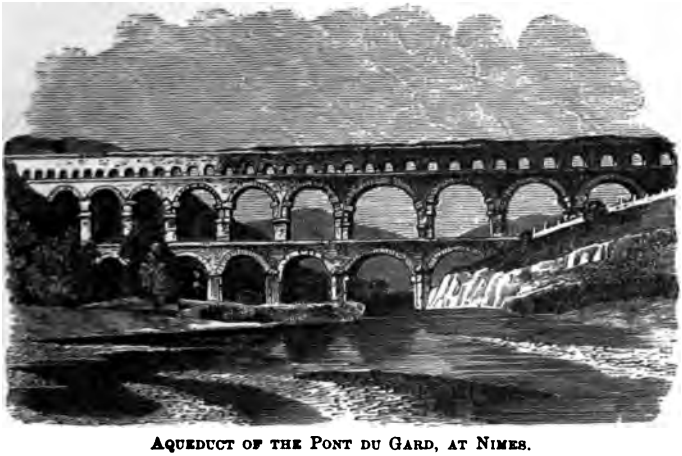
* This was the great prison of Rome -the Mamertine—built by Ancus Martius, on the slope of the Capitoline, and enlarged by Servius Tullius by a subterranean dungeon, 12 feet underground, walled and overarched with masonry. It was in one of the cold, damp cells of this dungeon that Jugurtha closed his eventful but wicked career.

† These were covered porticoes in which persons met to transact business, and in which the courts of law held their sessions. After the recognition of Christianity by the state, the *basilica* became a model for church architecture. The main body of the building, called the *nave* (from its resemblance to the interior of a ship, *navis*), was for the people assembled for business; the aisles (*alæ*, wings), separated from the nave by pillars, afforded passage from the crowd; and the end, semicircular in form, was for the prætor and those who appeared before his tribunal. In the church edifices these became, respectively, the nave, aisles, and choir. The first *basilica* was erected in 184 B.C.

nations; while, looking down upon all, from the Capitoline Hill, was the great temple of Jupiter.* Various streets surrounded or intersected portions of this space, in which were shops for the sale of goods (*taber'næ*).

108. Besides the main *forum*, there were other public squares of a similar character, used for market-places, or places of business. There were, also, open spaces of larger extent, resembling parks, being set with trees and partly covered with grass. These were called *fields* (*campi*), chief among which was the Campus

Campus Martius.



AQUEDUCT OF THE PONT DU GARD, AT NIMES.

Martius, or Field of Mars, in which were held the assemblies (*comitia*) for making laws and appointing magistrates, and where the young men had their martial exercises, drilling, riding, etc. This was also surrounded by many splendid edifices. Near to this square was erected by Agrippa, son-in-law of Augustus, the magnificent temple

The Pantheon.

* The Capitoline Hill, the smallest of the seven hills, was called previously the Tarpeian rock. It was very steep and rugged, and formed a natural fortress. On its top was built the Capitol, completed by Tarquin the Proud. It was burned during the Sullan civil war, but was afterward restored.

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called the Pantheon (temple of all the gods), which has survived the ravages of time and the destructive violence of the barbarians.

109. The aqueducts were among the most magnificent of the Roman works. Of these there were seven in the time of Augustus, affording an abundant supply of water both for private use and for the immense public baths. During the empire many minor structures of this

Aqueducts.

RACING CHARIOTS.

kind were erected. By these aqueducts the water was carried from a considerable distance, over stone arches, some of which were more than one hundred feet high. The remains of these still attest their original grandeur; and of the three aqueducts which now supply modern Rome with water, two are of ancient construction.*

110. Besides these, should be mentioned the buildings for the games of the circus, consisting of chariot-races, boxing,

* "Wherever the Roman went he carried with him his art of building. The aqueduct which was constructed by Agrippa to supply Nemansus (Nimes), a colony of no great note, with water, is a proof of this assertion. The largest modern cities can hardly show a work of public utility so magnificent as the *structure* which is known to thousands of modern travelers under the name of the *Pont du Gard.*"—*Liddell's History of Rome.* See page 251.

and gymnastic contests. These games were, as among the Greeks, of a religious character, intended as an expression of joy for the favor of the gods or to appease their displeasure. Among the exercises were also the dreadful gladiatorial combats, introduced in 264 B.C. The

Circus

THE FLAVIAN AMPHITHEATER, OR COLOSSEUM.

largest and oldest circus was the Circus Maximus, capable of holding more than 200,000 persons. There were several other buildings of this character in the city.

111. To the circus succeeded, in the time of Julius Cæsar, the amphitheater, which was better adapted to the exhibition of the gladiatorial combats, the seats, rising in tiers, being arranged around the central space, or arena, on which the contests took place. In the time of Augustus, a stone amphitheater was built in the Campus Martius; but the grandest building of this kind was erected

Amphitheater.

about one hundred years later, by the emperors Vespasian and Titus. This was called the Fla'vian Amphitheater (from the emperors' family), but subsequently received the title of the Colosse'um, on account of its immense size.* It was elliptical in shape, 564 feet long and 467 feet wide, resting on fourscore arches, and rising to the

The Colosseum.

MAUSOLEUM OF AUGUSTUS (RESTORED).

height of 140 feet. It accommodated at least 80,000 spectators. Its internal and external decorations were of the grandest description.

* "The outside of the edifice was incrusted with marble, and decorated with statues. The slopes of the vast concave which formed the inside were filled and surrounded with sixty or eighty rows of seats of marble, likewise covered with cushions, and capable of receiving with ease above fourscore thousand spectators. Sixty-four vomitories (for by that name the doors were very aptly distinguished) poured forth the immense multitude; and the entrances, passages, and staircases were contrived with such exquisite skill that each person, whether of the senatorial, the equestrian, or plebeian order, arrived at his destined place without trouble or confusion."—*Gibbon.*

112. Pompey's Theater was another remarkable building, erected by that great general after his return from the east. It was built of stone, and was large enough to seat 40,000 spectators. There were also spacious edifices for the public baths, built of marble, and supplied with every convenience; and numerous palaces (*pala'tia*), among which the imperial palace of Augustus, fronting the Forum, was conspicuous; but several others were built by his successors. Many of the private palaces were very spacious and elegant. On the hills around the city were laid out parks and gardens (*horti*), adorned with handsome buildings and works of art. The city was also rich in sepulchral monuments—imperial or private mausolea, as well as columns erected in honor of illustrious Romans.

Pompey's Theater.

Mausolea.

ROMAN ART.

113. In the early period of Roman history, art had made some progress. Statues were erected to heroes and patriots, distinguished by their services to their country, and temples were built to the gods; but of these works of the olden time nothing now remains but the famous bronze group of the wolf suckling the twins, constructed about three centuries B.C., and set up in the Capitol. The Romans seem to have derived their art from the Etruscans and Greeks, whose artistic styles and designs had very much in common. After the conquest of Southern Italy, Rome was brought into immediate contact with the finest specimens of Greek art.

Early period.

Source of Roman art.

114. Utility rather than beauty was the guiding principle in Roman art; and the aqueducts, sewers, public roads, and other works already referred to are the best monuments of their building and engineering skill. They aimed not to please the taste simply, but to accomplish some great public benefit by their vast structures.

Guiding principle.

Thus, they cut tunnels through the solid rock for the purpos of draining off the volcanic lakes;* and, when Julius Cæsa had reached the height of his power, he formed the design o draining the Pontine marshes by constructing a canal, so a to improve the healthfulness of the city, and pro jected other great works. In the early times, a order of architecture called the Tuscan was mostly used.

The arch.

TEMPLE OF VESTA—(In its present condition).

Roman architecture is particularly distinguished for the us made of the arch, supposed to have been invented by th Etruscans, and of the vaulted dome.‡

* "The first tunnel of which we hear was that by which the Alban Lake wa partially let off during the siege of Veii, a work which was suggested by an Etru can soothsayer. Other works of like kind still remain, though the time of thei execution is not always known."—*Liddell's History of Rome.*

† This is an order of architecture, the composition of which is attributed to th Etruscans. It is a species of simple Doric. No complete sample of it, howeve has been left to us by the ancients.

‡ With the fifth century began the building of gates, bridges, and aqueduct *based mainly on* the arch, which is thenceforth inseparably associated with th

115. In the later period, after wealth and luxury had invaded Rome, Greek art became a study; and though there were no Roman artists of any account, there were many connoisseurs and collectors. The dwellings of the rich were adorned with the works of Greek masters, as were likewise the public buildings and temples. Music and dancing were especially cultivated; as, in the Roman banquets, the singers and instrumental performers, as well as the dancing-girls, were in great demand. This was also the custom in their theatrical entertainments.

Use of Greek art.

Music and dancing.

ROMAN LITERATURE.

116. Roman literature, for the most part, was only an imitation of that of the Greeks. Rome had no literature worthy of the name until near the close of the republic; and the rage for Greek models constantly repressed all original genius. The first period of Roman literature begins with the dramatist Livius An-dro-ni'cus, who flourished about 240 B.C. He was a native of Magna Græcia; and, when his country was conquered by the Romans, he was brought a captive to Rome. He wrote comedies and tragedies, in which he also took part as an actor. The stirring hymn which he composed for the Romans during the first Punic War was much admired. Ennius, sometimes called the "father of Roman song," and Plautus and Terence, noted for their comedies, also lived during this period (in the second century B.C.).

First period.

Livius Andronicus.

Other poets.

117. The second period, sometimes called the golden age, of Roman literature, was more prolific of genius. In the early part, flourished Varro, celebrated for his learning, who wrote

Roman name. Akin to this was the development of the form of the round temple with the dome-shaped roof, which was foreign to the Greeks, but was a peculiar favorite with the Romans, and was especially applied by them in the case of their peculiar non-Grecian worship, particularly that of Vesta."—Mommsen.

on agriculture, grammar, antiquities, and many other subjects. Indeed, it is said, his works filled 500 volumes. He died 26 B.C. Lucretius, a noted philosophical poet, who embodied in verse the peculiar tenets of Epicurus, was a contemporary with Varro. It was, however, during the age of Augustus that Latin literature reached its height, through the genius of many gifted poets: Virgil, the author of the *Ænead;* Horace, renowned for his odes, satires, and poetical epistles; Ovid, for many beautiful poems; Livy and Sallust, for their histories; and Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, for their lyric poems. Augustus was a great patron of letters, as was likewise his friend and minister, Mæ-ce'nas. Among the writers of the golden age must also be mentioned Cæsar, whose *Commentaries* on his own campaigns are a model of military history; and Cicero, illustrious not only for his orations but for his philosophical works, and his essays and letters.

Golden age.

VIRGIL.

HORACE.

118. The third period, sometimes called the Silver Age, belongs to the time of the empire; but, in continuation of this topic, we may here mention the most prominent writers who flourished during it, as their works form an essential portion of Roman literature. Tac'i-tus and Sue-to'ni-us are especially noted for their histories and biographies; Per'seus and Ju've-nal, for their satires; and the elder Pliny for his writings on natural history. To these must be added Sen'e-ca, the philosopher and moralist, whose writings are prized for their purity and elevation.

Silver age.

ROMAN RELIGION.

119. The religion of the Romans, in its general features, resembled that of the Greeks; that is to say, it consisted in the worship of a large number of deities; and among these

were many of the gods of Olympus, but with different names. This has already been pointed out in the account given of the Greek mythology. Some of the prominent features of the Roman religion were derived from the Etruscans, who were exceedingly superstitious. As the Romans were very religious, and as they traced the causes of all events, including the phenomena of nature, to the action of the gods, nothing was undertaken without previously con-

General features.

THE PANTHEON—(its present condition, 1881).

sulting their will, by established methods, which constituted a part of the Roman political as well as religious system.

120. There were many modes of divination—by omens, prodigies, the Sibylline books,* and the auspices; but the most

* The Sibylline books were said to have been brought from Cumæ. "The story runs that a strange woman came to Tarquin and offered nine books for sale. The king refused to buy the books. The sibyl departed and burnt three; then returned, offering the remaining six at the same price. The king again refused. The sibyl then burnt three more, and demanded the same price for the remaining three. The curiosity of the king was aroused; he bought the books, and the woman vanished. The books were kept in a stone chest under the capitol in charge of two

important were the auspices, which were certain signs supposed to be given by the gods in order that their will might become known. There were officers, a kind of priesthood, appointed for the purpose of attending to the proper rites to be employed in interpreting these signs; these composed the College of Augurs, consisting at first of four, afterward increased to sixteen, and selected from the patrician order. Besides these there was a College of Pontiffs, the most sacred of all the religious institutions, which supervised and regulated the worship of the state, including the times of the religious festivals, which were very numerous; and also decided what gods should be adored.

Divination.

College of Augurs.

College of Pontiffs.

121. The public meetings could not be convened without consulting an augur; nor could the business proceed if he pronounced the omens unfavorable. If it lightened or thundered, or there was any other disturbance in the atmosphere—a storm, darkness, or any peculiar appearance of the sky—the assembly was compelled to disperse. There was, also, a form of divination performed by those called Ha-rus'pi-ces, introduced from Etruria. It was based upon an inspection of the entrails of victims offered in sacrifice, by which they pretended to ascertain the will of the gods. They also professed to be able to appease by certain ceremonies the anger of the gods, when it was indicated by some strange natural occurrence, as when the lightning struck, when it rained stones or blood, or when any other *prodigy* occurred.

Office of the augurs.

Haruspices.

122. The priests did not form an exclusive class. They were elected as likewise were the other magistrates, but for life; and sometimes held a civil as well as a priestly office. The *pontifex maximus* (high priest) stood first in power; but the

men, called *duoviri sacrorum*. They were consulted by order of the senate in times of great emergency or public calamity. Through their influence the worship of many Grecian deities was introduced."—Leighton's History of Rome.

King of the Sacrifices (*rex sacrific'ulus*) held the highest rank in sanctity of office. The subordinate priests were called flamens (*flam'i-nes*), who attended to the worship of particular deities: the Vestal Virgins were priestesses of Vesta. It was unlawful for a flamen to ride upon a horse, to look upon an army equipped for battle, or to take an oath. He could have no knot in any part of his clothing; nor was he permitted to be absent from the city a single night. Such are a few of the restraints to which every priest was subjected.

Priesthood.

SUOVETAURILIA.

123. The Roman calendar showed the festival days, which afforded the people a great deal of time for leisure and enjoyment, besides impressing their minds with their religious duties. The worship of Jupiter and Mars (Qui-ri'nus) was the most prominent, but that of Vesta was the most sacred.* The days of full moon were sacred to Jupiter. To Mars belonged the new year's day, March 1, which was a great warrior festival, celebrated with war-dances, and the consecration of arms; and besides this there were the *Quirina'lia* on the 27th of February, sacred to the same deity. The corn and wine festival (*Cerea'lia*), sacred to Ceres, took place in June; the *Vina'lia*, or wine feast, in August; the *Saturna'lia*, or festival of Saturn, in December; the *Luperca'lia*,

Festivals.

* "Six chaste virgins, daughters as it were of the household of the Roman people, attended to the service of Vesta, and had to maintain the wholesome fire of the common hearth always blazing as an example, and an omen to the burgesses. This worship, half domestic, half public, was the most sacred of all in Rome."—*Mommsen.*

or wolf festival, in February. Then there were the festival of departed spirits (*Fera'lia*) and the ghost celebration (*Lemura'lia*), lasting three days, besides many others. At certain ceremonies of purification (*lustrations*), a pig, a sheep, and a bull were sacrificed. These were called the *suovetauril'ia*. The Latin religion lacked the spiritual and æsthetic element so prominent in that of the Greeks, and soon degenerated into a dreary round of meaningless ceremonies. The worship was very sensuous, consisting chiefly in expressions of joy,—songs, games, dances, and banquets.

Manners and Customs.

124. Roman houses, in early times, were very plain and simple, one story in height, and containing but a single room, the floor of which was usually covered with straw; the windows being only openings in the walls closed by shutters, which also supplied the place of chimneys for the escape of smoke. When the tide of wealth and luxury flowed into Rome, handsome residences took the place of these hovels, and many magnificent mansions were erected.

Roman houses.

125. From the vestibule, at the entrance of which the word *salve* (welcome) was carved, the visitor passed into a spacious hall, or reception room, called the *atrium*, doors from which led to the other apartments, either directly or by intermediate courts. There were separate rooms set apart for cooking, for the entertainment of intimate friends, and for the domestics, besides sleeping-apartments, banquet-halls, and often a chapel for the worship of the gods. Here were the *lares*, or household gods; while the images of the dead were placed in the *atrium*. Windows of transparent stone succeeded the rude openings with shutters; but, under the empire, glass was used.

Vestibule, atrium, etc.

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Banquets.

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IMPLEMENTS OF WRITING.*

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Books and writing.

* "The circular wooden or metal case (*scrinium*) at the left, with a cover, contains six volumes rolled up (hence the word volume), and labelled that they may be easily distinguished. In front of the case is a *stylus* and a pentagonal inkstand, very similar to those now in use. A little to the right is a pen made of reed; hence called *calamus*. Next to the case of books is the *tabellæ*, joined together as with hinges, and covered with wax. Above this, is another, pinned as it were to the wall with a *stylus;* to the right of the last, lies a book of tablets open. In the center are single volumes in cases; one of the cases on the left is open, and the other shut. On the right, are four volumes, two of which have their titles, one attached to the *papyrus* itself, and the other to the *umbilicus* or cylinder of wood in its center. The books were carried in the *scrinium*. When a Roman, either in the city or on a journey, wished to use books, a slave accompanied him to carry the *scrinium*. The children of the rich were accompanied to school by a slave, who carried their books and writing-tablets. Books and documents when not in use were deposited in the *scrinium*, which was sealed if the documents were im-

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Male costume.

TOGA.

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Female costume.

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Funerals.

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was composed of 3000 foot-soldiers and 300 horse; but it afterward underwent various modifications, and contained from 5000 to 6000 men. For a long period the Roman citizens were all subject to military duty; but after the time of Marius, a soldier when enlisted remained constantly with the army for twenty years. The

Organization of the army.

SLINGER. LEGIONARY. LICTOR. KNIGHT.

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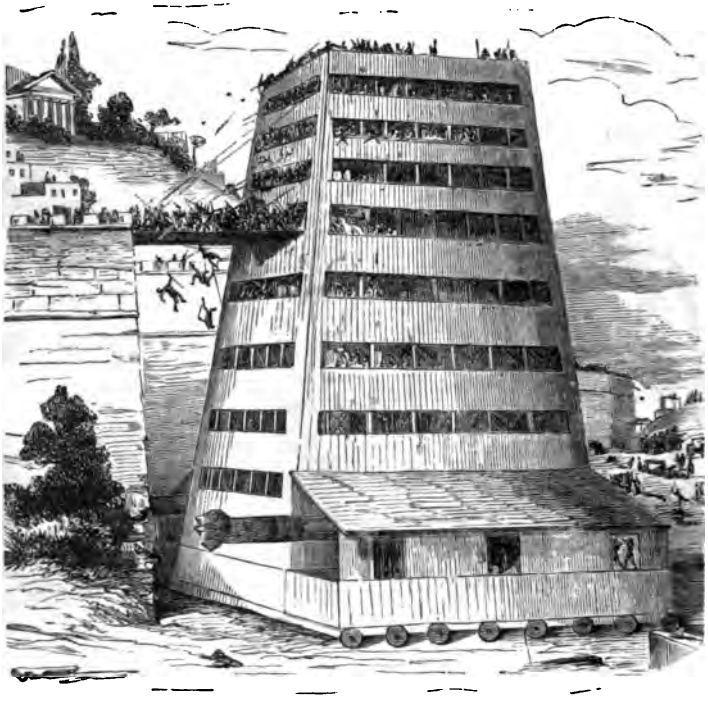

BESIEGING TOWER.

as the slingers from the Balearic Islands and bowmen from Crete. Several kinds of military engines were used for

strength, and therefore contained 1110 men: total, 6105 men. (2) *Cavalry*—ten 'troops' (*turmæ*), containing 66 men each, except the first, which had twice the number; total, 726 men. (3) *Artillery*—two large and ten small *machinæ*, with a sufficiency of men to work them, number unknown; probably not less than 70. *Total (probable) strength* of the entire legion, 6901."—*Rawlinson's Ancient History.*

the taking of cities, such as the battering-ram and the besieging-tower, the latter composed of several stories, on which were placed soldiers who cleared the walls by means of their missiles, or made a direct attack by the drawbridges. Besides these, the catapult was employed for discharging darts, and the ballista for hurling balls or stones at the enemy.*

Besieging-towers, etc.

136. In making an assault upon a city, the battering-ram was used to destroy the lower part of the wall, the catapult hurled its darts at the defenders on the top of the walls, while the missiles from the ballista destroyed the battlements. Those who were engaged in filling up the moat so as to approach the walls, were protected from the missiles of the besieged by wooden sheds, covered with hides or other incombustible material, and placed on rollers so as to be pushed forward. Mines were sometimes dug under the fortifications. In the mean time, the besieged hurled from the walls stones, darts, and fire, pushed the attacking ladders back, or seizing the assailants with tongs drew them into the city. Countermines were constructed under the walls; and huge stones or sand-bags were let down to protect the walls from the effects of the battering-ram.

Mode of attack.

Mode of defense.

ROMAN STANDARD.

137. Auxiliary to the military system was the triumph, the

* The Romans first learned the use of the ballista at the siege of Syracuse, where Archimedes, by means of these machines, hurled stones weighing 1200 pounds upon the vessels of the Romans lying in the harbor.

† The letters S P Q R on the standard signified *Senatus populusque Romanus*—Senate and (*que*) People of Rome.

...ute of praise and honor publicly bestu...
general after his return from...
central figure in this splendid...
...hest object of the soldier's ambition, a...
...rious deeds of fortitude and valor. It c...
...cession along the *Via Sacra* (sacred s...
...itol, where a bull or ox was sacrificed to...
...ccasion of general rejoicing. The ten...

SPOILS OF JERUSALEM, FROM THE ARCH ...

..., and were adorned with flowers; and...
...lay attire, thronged the streets, or sto...
...orary scaffoldings, eager to gaze on th...
...8. The victorious *imperator* entered ...
...iumph, in a chariot drawn by four h...
...by the Senate and other m...
procession then passed on, co...
...officers; then the spoils of the vanq...
...the victim to be sacrificed; disting...
...r prisoners in chains, the lictors wit...
...victor, bearing a laurel bough in hi...
...a scepter, and wearing a laurel wreat...
...army brought up the rear.

There was a lesser triumph, at which only a sheep ...
...as called an ovation.
...his structure was erected in Rome to commem...
... represents a portion of the bas...

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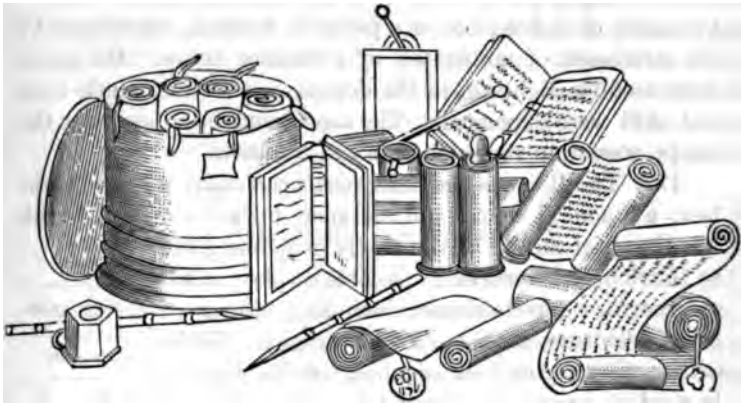

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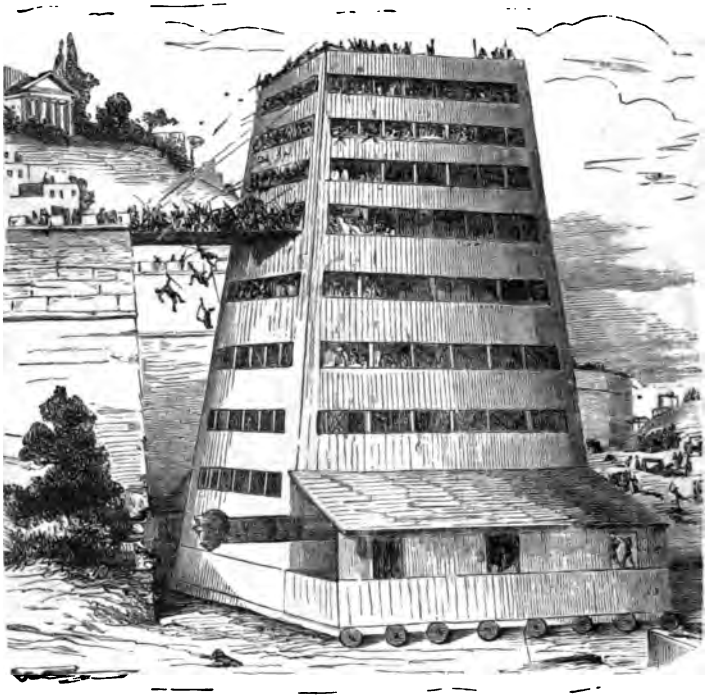

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Manners and Customs.

124. Roman houses, in early times, were very plain and simple, one story in height, and containing but a single room, the floor of which was usually covered with straw; the windows being only openings in the walls closed by shutters, which also supplied the place of chimneys for the escape of smoke. When the tide of wealth and luxury flowed into Rome, handsome residences took the place of these hovels, and many magnificent mansions were erected.

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Vestibule, atrium, etc.

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Baths.

EMPRESS LIVIA.

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Funerals.

MILITARY SYSTEM.

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Organization of the army.

SLINGER. LEGIONARY. LICTOR. KNIGHT.

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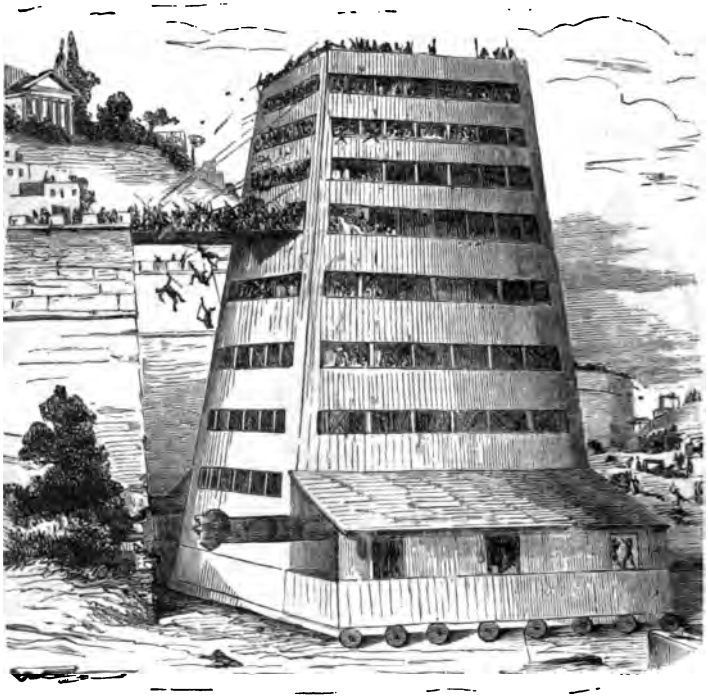

BESIEGING TOWER.

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honor publicly b... r his return fr... re in this splen... dier's ambition, ... e and valor. It ... Sacra (sacred ... was sacrificed t... oicing. The ten...

...THE ARCH OF TITUS.

...owers; and the peop... ...s, or stood on ba... ...gaze on the spectac... ...entered the city by ... ...y four horses, and ... ...ther magistrates: ... ...on, consisting first ... the vanquished; the ... distinguished captiv... ...ors with their fasces ... in his right hand. ... wreath on his head;

as the
Crete.

strength,
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sufficiency
...al (pro

... a sheep ... was sacrifi...
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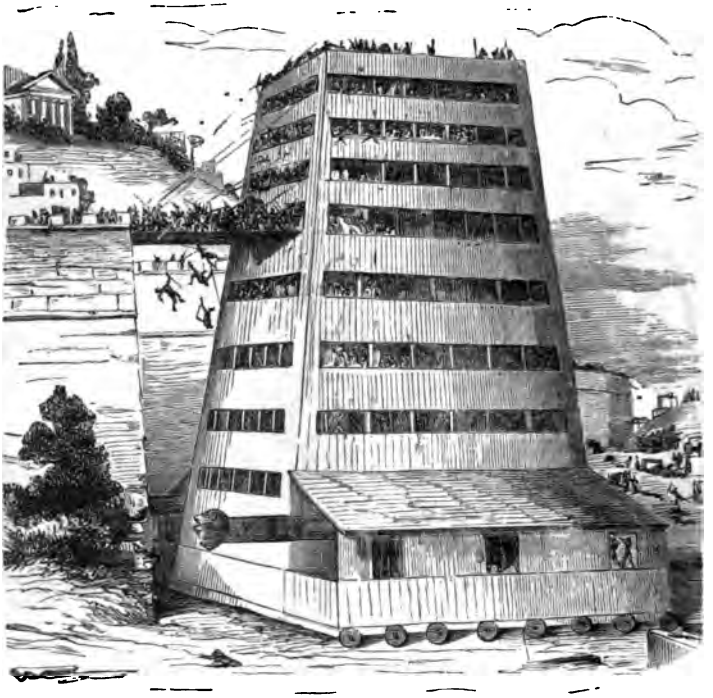

BESIEGING TOWER.

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tribute of praise and honor publicly bestowed on a victorious general after his return from war. To be the central figure in this splendid pageant was the highest object of the soldier's ambition, and excited him to glorious deeds of fortitude and valor. It consisted of a grand procession along the *Via Sacra* (sacred street), up to the capitol, where a bull or ox was sacrificed to Jupiter.* It was an occasion of general rejoicing. The temples were thrown

The triumph.

SPOILS OF JERUSALEM, FROM THE ARCH OF TITUS. †

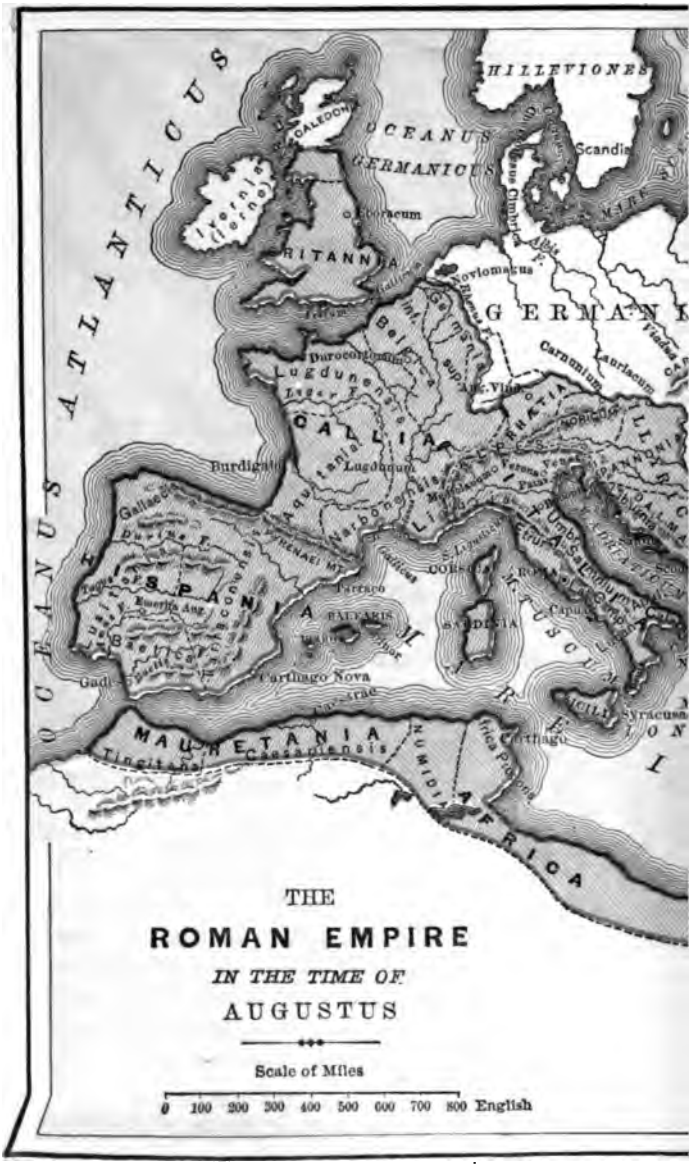
open, and were adorned with flowers; and the people, in their holiday attire, thronged the streets, or stood on balconies or temporary scaffoldings, eager to gaze on the spectacle.

138. The victorious *imperator* entered the city by the gate of triumph, in a chariot drawn by four horses, and was met by the Senate and other magistrates; and the procession then passed on, consisting first of the civil officers; then the spoils of the vanquished; the priests, with the victim to be sacrificed; distinguished captives, and other prisoners in chains, the lictors with their fasces; then the victor, bearing a laurel bough in his right hand, in his left a scepter, and wearing a laurel wreath on his head; while the army brought up the rear.

The procession.

* There was a lesser triumph, at which only a sheep (*ovis*) was sacrificed. Hence this was called an *ovation*.

† This structure was erected in Rome to commemorate the taking of Jerusalem by Titus. The cut represents a portion of the bas relief on the monument. (See page 278.)



THE

ROMAN EMPIRE

IN THE TIME OF

AUGUSTUS

Scale of Miles

0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800 English

7.

Rha F.
Daix F.
Borysthenes F.
Tanais
Palus Macotis
Olbia
CAUCACUS MONS
ALBANIA
Abasgi
Colchis
IBERIA
Cheronesus Taurica
R. BOSPORI
PONTUS EUXINUS
Trapezus
Byzantium
Amasia
ARMENIA
MEDIA
ATROPATENE
MEDIA MAJOR
RECNUM
PARTHORUM
Susa
BABYLONIA
Babylon
Cetesiphon
Zeugma
MESOPOTAMIA
Euphrates R.
Damascus
SYRIA
Commagena
CAPPADOCIA
GALATIA
Mysia
Lydia
Phrygia
Lycaonia
Pisid.
Carta
Rhodus
CYPRUS
ERNUM
ARABIA
ARABIA PETRÆA
Marmarica
AEGYPTUS
Nilus F.
S. ARABICUS
Fisk & Sco. N.Y.

SECTION V.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

139. The reign of Augustus may properly be deemed to commence with the victory at Actium; and it lasted forty-five years from that event (to 14 A.D.), for Augustus lived to be seventy-seven years of age. Although he ruled with absolute power, he was careful to retain the forms of the republican government, and to avoid every offensive title, such as king or dictator; but he caused all the important offices to be conferred upon himself. Thus, as *Imperator* (commander-in-chief), he had the command of the armies, and as president of the Senate and consul, he administered the civil government. The Senate still held its sessions, but its decrees had no real weight. The long civil wars had made the Romans greatly desire tranquillity; and as Augustus ruled with equity and moderation, they acquiesced in his authority. He kept large armies stationed at various parts of the empire to repress all opposition, and he instituted the Prætorian Guards* to protect his person. He also appointed a special

Reign of Augustus.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What were the boundaries of the Roman Empire under Augustus? *Ans.* NORTH, the British Channel, the German Ocean, the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euxine (Black Sea); EAST, the Euphrates River and the desert of Syria; SOUTH, the great African desert; WEST, the Atlantic Ocean. How were the provinces divided? *Ans.* Into three groups—the Western, or European; the Eastern, or Asiatic; and the Southern, or African. What were the Western provinces? *Ans.* Hispania (Spain), Gallia (Gaul), Germania (Germany), Vindelicia, Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, Mœsia, Illyricum, Macedonia, Thracia (Thrace), Achaia, Sicily, and Sardinia (14). What were the Eastern provinces? *Ans.* Asia, Bithynia, Galatia, Pamphylia, Cappadocia, Cilicia, Syria, and Judea (8). What were the Southern? *Ans.* Ægyptus (Egypt), the Cyrenaica (including Crete), Africa Proper, Numidia, and Mauretania (5). How many were there in all? *Ans.* Twenty-seven. What was the situation of each of these provinces? (See Map VII.) What was the extent of the Roman Empire? *Ans.* About 2700 miles, from east to west; and about 1000, from north to south.

* So called from *prætorium*, the name given to the tent of the general in every Roman camp. The prætorian guard comprised ten cohorts of a thousand men each, and consisted exclusively of Italian soldiers. Augustus kept three cohorts

council of state with whom he advised in regard to his measures.

140. Under his direction, campaigns were carried on against the tribes in northern Spain and among the eastern Alps—the Rhætians and Vindelicians, as well as in the territories bordering on the Rhine and Danube. The provinces of Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia were annexed to the empire during his reign; but his forces met with a severe defeat in the attempt to conquer the Germans living to the east of the Rhine. Led by the brave and patriotic Ar-min'i-us, or Her'mann, some of the tribes that had submitted to the Romans revolted, and the proconsul Va'rus was surprised, and his army cut to pieces (A.D. 10). This disaster so preyed upon the emperor's mind that he died a short time after (A.D. 14), leaving the government to his stepson Tiberius. The reign of Augustus is especially memorable for the birth of CHRIST, in Judea (4 B.C.). [See page 21.]

Military operations.

Birth of Christ.

141. The TWELVE CÆSARS include Julius, the illustrious founder of the line, Augustus, who is considered the first emperor (*imperator*), and his ten successors. Most of these were odious tyrants, distinguished for nothing but their sensuality and bloodthirsty cruelty.* Vespasian and his son Titus, the latter of whom

The twelve Cæsars.

in Rome, and distributed the others among the neighboring cities. His successor, Tiberius, collected the whole body in a camp just outside the walls of Rome. These prætorian guards afterward became the chief instruments of usurpation and tyranny. The Roman standing army maintained by Augustus at different points of the frontier and in the provinces, amounted to about 350,000 men.

* The following is a list of the Twelve Cæsars, with the date of the death of each:

Julius Cæsar	44 B.C.	Galba	69 A.D.
Augustus	14 A.D.	Otho	69 "
Tiberius	37 "	Vitellius	69 "
Caligula	41 "	Vespasian	79 "
Claudius	54 "	Titus	81 "
Nero	68 "	Domitian	96 "

The Cæsarian line really terminated with the death of Nero, who was the last who could claim connection with the Julian family either by blood or adoption. Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian constituted the Flavian line, being so called from the family name (Flavius) of Vespasian.

was called, on account of his virtues, the "Delight of Mankind," were alone worthy to occupy the throne. The most noted event of Vespasian's reign was the taking and destruction of Jerusalem by Ti'tus, the son of Vespasian. This was accomplished after a terrible siege of six months, during which, according to Josephus, more than a million of persons perished. The city was razed to the ground, and the inhabitants sold or driven into banishment (A.D. 70).

Vespasian and Titus.

THE ARCH OF TITUS (in its present condition, 1881).

142. The reign of Titus was marked by many disastrous events. In the first year occurred the dreadful eruption of Vesuvius, during which the cities of Pompeii (*pom-pe'yi* or *pom-pa'ye*) and Her-cu-la'ne-um were overwhelmed by a dense shower of black ashes that fell, burying many of the inhabitants in their dwellings. Fugitives from Campania flocked into Rome, and a terrible pestilence ensued, *during which 10,000* persons died daily. This was suc-

Reign of Titus

ceeded by a great conflagration that raged for several days, and destroyed a considerable portion of the city. Titus gave liberally to relieve the sufferers, and caused the edifices which had been consumed to be rebuilt. He also completed the Colosseum, commenced by Vespasian. His death occurred soon after, in the third year of his reign (A.D. 81); and he was succeeded by his brother, Domitian (*do-mish'e-an*), who was as remarkable for tyranny and cruelty as Titus had been for his goodness.

143. The period of the empire ending with the reign of Domitian is especially noted for the power possessed by the prætorian guards, who became virtually the real sovereigns after they had been concentrated in the vicinity of Rome by Tiberius. This was a most momentous event in the history of the empire, since it thus became a military despotism. During Nero's reign, Armenia was taken from the Parthians, but restored to them on the condition that it should be held as a tributary province of Rome; and Britain was subdued as far north as the Trent. Owing to the peace which prevailed throughout the empire, except on the frontier, the population greatly increased, the towns became filled with inhabitants, and a vast tide of wealth poured into the city. The state of society, however, became more and more depraved, and dreadful immorality prevailed.

Prætorian guards.

Growth of the empire.

144. The reigns of the "five good emperors" (96–180 A.D.) formed a better era. These were Ner'va, Tra'jan, Had'ri-an, An-to-ni'nus Pi'us, and Marcus Au-re'li-us. Trajan was equally great as a monarch and a general, while his many virtues entitle him to a place among the best of men. He made a conquest of Dacia, and gained important victories in Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Parthia, the cities of Se-leu'cia* and Ctes'i-phon

Five good emperors.

* *Seleucia* was founded by Seleucus, and became one of the most magnificent [illegible] *the world.* It was situated on the west side of the Tigris, about forty miles

surrendering to his arms. In commemoration of his conquest of Dacia, he erected a column in the forum. Hadrian spent thirteen years in visiting the different parts of the empire to inspect the administration of the government. To defend the Roman province of Britain, he caused a rampart of earth to be built across the island from Solway Frith to the North Sea. The hordes of barbarians commenced their inroads during the reign of Marcus Aurelius, whose death marks the commencement of the decline of the Roman Empire (180 A.D.).

145. During the succeeding century, the army gained still greater power; for the soldiers dictated who should reign, and the Senate was unable to make any resistance to their choice. At one period (193 A.D.), the prætorians sold the throne to the highest bidder, who happened to be a wealthy senator, named M. Did'i-us Ju-li-a'nus; but he only occupied it for two months, and never exercised any authority over the provinces.* In Britain, Pannonia, and Syria, the legions, indignant at the disgraceful conduct of the prætorians, refused to ratify their choice, and conferred the imperial purple upon their own generals. Of these, Septim'ius Se-ve'rus, a bold and active soldier, was fortunate enough to hold it; for he marched at once to Rome, won over the prætorians, and obtained the acknowledgment of the Senate. His rule was vigorous and energetic, but that of a military despot. He defeated the Parthians, and took Seleucia, Ctesiphon, and Babylon. He also carried on war in Britain against the Caledonians, or Scots, whom he drove back into

Power of the prætorians.

Septimius Severus.

from Babylon, which was partly despoiled and depopulated to enrich it. *Ctesiphon* was built by the Parthians on the east bank of the Tigris, nearly opposite Seleucia, and became the capital of the Parthian monarchy.

* Gibbon says the donation given by Julianus to each soldier amounted to upward of two hundred pounds sterling. His competitor was Sulpicianus, father-in-law of the preceding emperor, who had been murdered. Sulpicianus had offered to the soldiers a donation of about one hundred and sixty pounds. Rawlinson says the whole amount paid amounted to about three millions sterling. Julianus was soon deposed, condemned to death, and executed.

their fastnesses, and strengthened the wall which had been built between the Clyde and Forth rivers to prevent their incursions. After a successful reign, he died in 211 A.D.

146. During the reign of his son Caracal'la, a remorseless tyrant, the old distinction between Romans or Italians and Provincials was abolished, and Roman citizenship was given to all the free inhabitants of the empire. Several of the emperors who subsequently reigned were natives of the provinces. The two emperors who succeeded Caracalla were perfectly detestable; but Alexander Severus, who followed, was a virtuous young man, of a mild and benevolent disposition, and very fond of learning; and his government was all that could have been expected from so excellent a prince. During his reign the Parthian Empire was overturned by a revolt of the Persians under Ard-e-shir', the founder of the famous dynasty of the Sas-san'i-des, who afterward ruled over Persia for more than four centuries. Alexander was murdered (235 A.D.) by some of the soldiers, who chose their own general to succeed him.

Caracalla.

New Persian Empire.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS.

147. The government being thus at the mercy of the army, it sometimes happened that there were several persons who claimed the throne in different parts of the empire, having been chosen by the armies which they commanded. These usually were called *tyrants*. During the reign of Gallic'nus (260–268 A.D.), there were nineteen of these pretenders, among whom was Od-e-na'thus, a prince

The tyrants.

of Palmyra, which had become an independent city, having revolted from the Romans on account of the exactions of the proconsul. As a reward for his services against the Persians, Gallienus conferred on him and his queen Ze-no′bia the government of the East, thus converting a rival into a friend and partner.

Odenathus and Zenobia.

148. Odenathus having been murdered by some of his own family, Zenobia succeeded him in the government. This queen was esteemed the most accomplished woman of her age, having been instructed by the celebrated scholar and critic, Lon-gi′nus. After her husband's death she filled the throne of Palmyra for five years; but, by claiming an independent sovereignty, she gave offense to the emperor Aurelian, who, having defeated her forces in two great battles, besieged and took Palmyra. Zenobia was made a captive to grace the triumph of her conqueror, and her favorite minister Longinus was executed (273 A.D.). The inhabitants having subsequently revolted, the city was destroyed. The ruins of Palmyra are among the most interesting relics of the ancient world.

Reign of Zenobia.

Destruction of Palmyra.

149. In the space of sixty-six years (217–283 A.D.), ten emperors perished by the violence of the soldiers; but a change took place on the accession of Di-o-cle′-tian, one of the most remarkable of the emperors. He was a native of Dalmatia, and his parents were slaves; but he had been promoted successively to the offices of provincial governor, consul, and prætorian prefect. He was proclaimed emperor by the army in 284 A.D.; and, the year after, feeling that the extent of the empire and the troubles in which it was involved were too vast for any single mind, he divided the government with a colleague. After a few years each emperor took an associate with the title of Cæsar; and thus the empire was divided among four rulers —two emperors and two Cæsars.

Reign of Diocletian.

150. During this reign, the Persians were defeated, and Mesopotamia, with several districts beyond the Tigris, was subdued. In 305 A.D., Diocletian took the extraordinary resolution to resign the empire, and obliged his colleague to do the same. The Cæsars, Ga-le'ri-us and Con-stan'tius, then became emperors; and the former, with the sanction of Diocletian, appointed the Cæsars to succeed them. Diocletian retired to Sa-lo'na, in Dalmatia, and spent the remainder of his life in the quiet pursuits of agriculture; and so well satisfied was he with the change, that when Maximian, his former colleague, afterward urged him to resume the imperial dignity, he replied: "I wish you would come to Salona and see the cabbages I have planted; for, having once visited my garden, you would never again mention to me the name of empire."

Abdication of Diocletian.

151. Constantius having died at York, in Britain, his son Con'stan-tine was saluted emperor by the army; but Galerius and the two Cæsars refusing to ratify the election, civil war ensued, in which there were no less than six competitors for the throne, among them the former colleague of Diocletian and his son Max-en'tius. Constantine, after eighteen years of war, finally prevailed over all his rivals, and became sole monarch of the empire (A.D. 323). During this conflict, while marching against Maxentius, he saw, it is said, in the heavens a luminous cross, bearing the inscription, in Greek, "Conquer by this;" and under the standard of the cross, having defeated his rival, he became a convert to Christianity. In order that his residence might be nearer the center of his dominions, and to strengthen his vast empire, he removed the capital from Rome to the Greek city Byzantium, which he embellished with magnificent churches, palaces, and other edifices, and fortified with walls and towers. The emperor called it New Rome, but it afterward received the name of *Constantinople* (city of Constantine).

Constantine.

Removal of the capital.

Rise and Progress of Christianity.

152. The conversion of Constantine was an event of great importance, for the Christian church acquired by means of this a strength which it had not previously possessed. Its struggle with Roman paganism was brought to a close by the famous Edict of Milan, granting toleration to the Christians (313 A.D.); and, in fact, Christianity soon became the acknowledged religion of the empire.* We shall, therefore, here briefly review the history of its rise and progress during the three centuries preceding this momentous event.

Conversion of Constantine.

153. The founder of Christianity, who was crucified in Jerusalem during the reign of the emperor Tiberius, brought to the world a religion, designed to do away with the polytheistic worship of false gods, to abolish the superstitions of paganism, to teach the highest moral truth, and to infuse a great spiritualizing element into society. The gospel was first preached in Judea, Asia Minor, and Greece, and afterward in the city of Rome itself, and in a few years gained many adherents. The character and tendency of the new religion were at first misunderstood, or were purposely misrepresented by those whose interests it opposed. Still it made wonderful progress, notwithstanding the bitter persecutions which its followers everywhere suffered.

Rise of Christianity.

Its progress.

154. The Roman government usually was tolerant of all religions. Rome, indeed, sometimes admitted into her own religious system the worship of the gods of those nations which

* "Constantine did not, as has been supposed, proscribe heathenism; he did not shut up the temples, neither did he forbid the offering of sacrifice. But he completely dissociated the state from heathenism, and to a certain extent allied it with Christianity; he stopped all *magisterial* offering of sacrifice; he shut up the temples where the ritual was immoral. Though not a baptized Christian till shortly before his death, he threw the whole weight of his encouragement on the Christian side."—*Rawlinson.*

she had conquered; but Christianity was hostile not simply to the religion of Rome, but to her civil and political system, which constantly required the performance of some act of pagan worship. Hence, the Roman magistrate could not avoid condemning the Christian who was brought before him, because of his refusal to obey the laws and to conform to the prescribed usages of the state, which required an act of sacrifice to the heathen gods. On this account, the Christians were terribly persecuted even by such emperors as Trajan and Marcus Aurelius—men renowned for their virtues.

Persecution of the Christians.

155. Christianity, however, in spite of this opposition, continued to spread. Its adherents were at first obliged to worship in secret places, and in the dead of night. The catacombs of Rome now show how carefully they were compelled to conceal the celebration of their religious rites, including the burial of the dead. But, in the first half of the third century, the persecutions were relaxed; and they were allowed to erect edifices for public worship; while their doctrines gained believers through the courage and devotion of the dauntless followers of Christ.

Secret worship.

Toleration of Christianity.

156. This period of calm was followed by dreadful persecutions, ordered by Decius and Valerian, and afterward by Diocletian, during whose reign, the tenth and last persecution took place, principally through the influence of the Cæsar Galerius. An imperial edict was issued directing that all Christian churches should be razed to the ground, that the Scriptures should be burned, and that every Christian should be deprived of office and honors; while those who refused to sacrifice to the gods should be given over to torture or death.

Persecution under Diocletian.

157. But these cruelties only stimulated the Christians to noble acts of self-renunciation and heroism, and at last *kindled feelings* of sympathy in the hearts of their enemies.

Even Galerius, who had shown the most bitter hatred of the new religion, just before his death (311 A.D.) issued an edict that the Christians should be permitted "freely to profess their private opinions, and to assemble in their conventicles without fear of molestation, provided always that they preserve a due respect to the established laws and government." But this edict was for a while disregarded by the successor of Galerius, and the per-

Edict of Galerius.

ARCH OF CONSTANTINE, ROME, (in its present condition).

secutions were renewed, until Constantine, two years later, issued the edict of Milan, to which we have already referred.

158. The vision of Constantine, followed by a remarkable dream, prompted him, it is said, to adopt the celebrated *Lab'a-rum*, or standard of the cross, which afterward was borne by the Christian emperors. This is described as a "long pike intersected by a transversal beam. The silken veil which hung down from the beam was curiously inwrought with the images of the reigning monarch

The Labarum.

and his children. The summit of the pike supported a crown of gold, which inclosed the mysterious monogram, at once expressive of the figure of the cross and the initial letters of the name of Christ."* Fifty guards constantly watched over the safety of the Labarum; and in battle the sight of it inspired the soldiers of Constantine with invincible enthusiasm, and scattered terror and dismay through the ranks of the opposing legions.

159. Constantine, until near the close of his life, did not forbid the practice of paganism; but he carefully encouraged Christianity. He caused the old churches to be repaired, and splendid edifices to be erected for Christian worship. He exempted the Christian priesthood from taxes, and proclaimed the first day of the week, Sunday (*dies solis*), a day of rest. During his reign, the celebrated Council of Nice (in Bithynia) was held, in which the doctrines of the Church were more clearly defined (325 A.D.).† Constantine died in 337 A.D.‡

Measures of Constantine.

Council of Nice.

160. A few years later, an attempt was made by the emperor Julian to re-establish paganism as the national religion. This emperor had been educated in Athens, and had imbibed a great fondness for the pagan philosophy and religion. On his accession, therefore, he determined to overthrow Christianity, and restore the ancient faith and worship; and hence he has been called "the Apostate." To disprove the prophecy of Christ, he attempted to

Revival of paganism.

* Sometimes the monogram was inscribed on the banderole, or silken veil, and the crown omitted. The origin of the name *labarum* is unknown.

† In this council, which was convened and attended by Constantine, the Nicene Creed was adopted in opposition to the opponents of the doctrine of the Trinity; and this creed was ratified by Constantine, who pronounced a sentence of immediate exile upon all who opposed it.

‡ "It must be confessed that the life and actions of this prince were not such as the Christian religion demands from those who profess to believe its sublime doctrines; yet the sincerity of his zeal for Christianity can scarcely be doubted." —*Mosheim.*

rebuild the temple at Jerusalem; but the design, it is said, was frustrated by a miracle, fire-balls breaking out from the foundation and driving the workmen away, so that they were obliged to abandon the attempt.* Julian was afterward killed in a disastrous expedition against the Persians, after a reign of sixteen months (A.D. 363); and his successor, Jovian, re-established Christianity as the religion of the state.

Christianity restored.

THE IRRUPTIONS OF THE BARBARIANS.

161. It is now necessary to consider those great irruptions of the barbarous nations of the north and east, that, like a vast tide, constantly poured into the empire during more than three centuries, successively occupying various parts of its dominions, and at last caused its overthrow. These invasions were commenced by the German races in an attack on Pannonia, in the latter part of the second century; but they were repelled by Marcus Aurelius. The attack was repeated in subsequent reigns; and, during that of the emperor Decius, the Goths, a Teutonic race from the north, made an incursion

Germans.

Goths.

* "The desire of rebuilding the temple has in every age been the ruling passion of the children of Israel. In this propitious moment, the men forgot their avarice, and the women their delicacy; spades and pickaxes of silver were provided by the vanity of the rich, and the rubbish was transported in mantles of silk and purple. Every purse was opened in liberal contributions, every hand claimed a share in the pious labor; and the commands of a great monarch were executed by the enthusiasm of a whole people. Yet, on this occasion, the joint efforts of power and enthusiasm were unsuccessful; and the ground of the Jewish temple, which is now covered by a Mahometan mosque, still continued to exhibit the same edifying spectacle of ruin and desolation. An earthquake, a whirlwind, and a fiery eruption, which overturned and scattered the new foundations of the temple, are attested, with some variations, by contemporary and respectable evidence. Even Ammianus Marcellinus, a contemporary and a pagan, relates that 'whilst Alypius, assisted by the governor of the province, urged with vigor and diligence the execution of the work, horrible balls of fire, breaking out near the foundations, with frequent and reiterated attacks, rendered the place, from time to time, inaccessible to the scorched and blasted workmen; and, the victorious element continuing in this manner obstinately and resolutely bent, as it were, to drive them to a distance, the undertaking was abandoned.'"—*Gibbon.*

into Dacia, and, crossing the Danube, attacked Mœsia and Thrace. The Romans suffered a disastrous defeat; the city of Phil-ip-pop'o-lis was taken by storm, and 100,000 persons were massacred. In a second defeat, after a terrific conflict, Decius himself was slain (251 A.D.).

162. The emperor Claudius, a great general, about twenty years later, gained a signal victory over the Goths in Mœsia, destroying one of the mightiest armaments that ever invaded the empire; but Aurelian, his successor, finding it impossible to withstand the vast hordes of the Goths, now joined by the Vandals, a kindred race, relinquished to them the large province of Dacia, most of the inhabitants of which removed to the south side of the Danube (270 A.D.). Aurelian next defeated the Al-e-man'ni, a German tribe, who had invaded Italy and threatened the city of Rome itself.

Settlement of the Goths in Dacia.

163. The Goths for some time resided peacefully in their new home, and about the middle of the fourth century were converted to Christianity. About the same time they began to be known as the Visigoths and the Ostrogoths—that is, the western and the eastern Goths—the former inhabiting the Dacian province, the latter the regions farther east, on the shores of the Black Sea. But now a new horde, called the Huns, an Asiatic or Mongolian tribe, poured into Europe, and attacked the Goths, who then, having applied to the Romans for protection, were allowed to cross the Danube into Mœsia. A dispute, however, soon after arose between the Goths and the Romans, and a great battle was fought near Adrianople, in which Valens, the Roman emperor, lost his life (378 A.D.). His successor, Theodosius the Great, the next year signally defeated them; and great numbers of them were received into the Roman armies.

Visigoths and Ostrogoths.

Huns.

Victory of the Goths.

164. The subsequent part of the history of the empire is *chiefly* occupied by accounts of the invasions of these bar-

barous races—the Goths, the Vandals, the Huns, and other tribes. This will be perceived as we rapidly sketch the most prominent events of the period succeeding the reign of the great Theodosius. The complete overthrow of paganism and the establishment of Christianity in the Roman dominions, as well as the repulse of the barbarians from every part of the frontier, were striking events of this reign—the last that reflected any credit upon the Roman name. Theodosius at his death divided the empire between his two sons, Ho-no'ri-us being placed on the throne of the West, and Ar-ca'di-us on that of the East (A.D. 395).

Reign of Theodosius.

165. The reign of Honorius had scarcely commenced, when the Goths, indignant that their subsidy had not been paid, invaded Greece under their renowned leader Al'a-ric, and devastated the whole country from Thermopylæ to Sparta. Stil'i-cho (*-ko*), the brave and talented minister of Honorius, by a series of masterly movements, drove out the barbarians; but the pusillanimous Arcadius made a disgraceful treaty with Alaric, which put an end to the campaign. Alaric soon after invaded Italy, and made a rapid march for Rome; but he was overtaken near Ve-ro'na and entirely defeated by Stilicho (A.D. 403). His departure from Italy was, however, purchased by the weak and timid Honorius by the payment of a large pension.

Invasion of Alaric.

166. During the next five years Stilicho gained several victories over the barbarians; but the unworthy emperor, tired of his influence and jealous of his great fame, treacherously caused him to be put to death, appointing in his stead a minister of neither capacity nor worth. The latter having caused a massacre of the families of the barbarians throughout Italy, the Gothic soldiers in the Roman army revolted and joined the standard of Alaric, who immediately invaded Italy and marched to Rome. The city was soon compelled by famine to surrender, and Honorius, who held his court at Ravenna, refusing to treat for peace,

Death of Stilicho.

the ancient capital was given up to pillage (A.D. 410). The devastation and massacre were frightful; but Alaric, professing Christianity, spared the churches; and, unwilling utterly to destroy the city which had been the world's mistress, the sixth day after its capture he withdrew his forces. While about to invade Sicily, he was seized with a mortal disease; and his remains were buried beneath the bed of a small stream, in southern Italy.

Taking of Rome by the Goths.

167. A-dol'phus, the brother-in-law of Alaric, succeeded to the sovereignty of the Goths; and having married Placid'i-a, the sister of Honorius, he made peace with the Romans. He then retired to Spain, and founded in that country the Kingdom of the Vis'i-goths. About the same time the Vandals settled in the central and southern parts of Spain; and the Sue'vī and other German tribes, in the north-western part. Under the successors of Adolphus, the Vandals were expelled (A.D. 427), the other nations subdued, and the Gothic monarchy extended over a large part of Gaul as well as Spain. The Vandals, crossing into Africa, made themselves masters of the northern part of that region. About this time also the Franks, Burgundians, and other barbarous tribes invaded Gaul.

Kingdom of the Visigoths.

Vandals.

168. After a disgraceful reign of twenty-eight years, Honorius died (A.D. 423), and was succeeded by Valentinian III., a weak prince, under the guardianship of his mother Placidia, who ruled in his name for twenty-five years. During this period the Huns, under their terrible leader At'ti-la, having defeated several Roman armies, ravaged the Eastern Empire from the Euxine to the Adriatic (A.D. 441–450). After extorting immense treasures from the Emperor of the East, as the price of peace, Attila formed an alliance with the Franks, and marched into Gaul, where he was met and defeated with terrible slaughter by the united forces of the Romans and Goths, the former

Attila's invasion.

Aetius.

commanded by A-e'tius, (*a-e'she-us*) the greatest general of his age, called by some "the last of the Romans" (A.D. 451).

169. Notwithstanding this great defeat, Attila the next year invaded Italy, and committed the most dreadful devastations, boasting that "the grass never grew on the spot where his horse had trod." Many of the most flourishing cities were taken and utterly destroyed. The people of the Venetian territory (the Ven'e-tī) took refuge in the neighboring islands; and thus was founded a maritime city, which afterward became the greatest emporium of Europe. The entreaties of Leo, Bishop of Rome, and the payment of an immense sum, finally induced Attila to depart from Italy; and the next year (A.D. 453) his death relieved the empire from the terror of his arms.

Devastations by Attila.

Death of Attila.

170. The emperor Valentinian having been assassinated, his widow implored the aid of Gen'se-ric, king of the Vandals, to avenge his death. With a numerous fleet he set sail from Carthage, his capital; and, disembarking at Ostia, marched to Rome, which became a prey to the violence of his followers. The pillage of the city lasted fourteen days and nights; and the vessels of the Vandals and Moors were laden with the spoils of temples and palaces (A.D. 455). During the next twenty-one years eight emperors successively assumed the purple, the last of whom was Romulus, the son of O-res'tes, a Pannonian chief, who had been in the service of Attila.

Pillage of Rome by the Vandals.

171. The barbarian mercenaries, demanding from Orestes a third part of Italy and being refused, revolted, and chose Od-o-a'cer, chief of a Gothic tribe called the Her'uli, as their leader. Pavia was taken by storm; and Orestes, having been made a prisoner, was put to death. Odoacer compelled Romulus, surnamed in derision *Au-gus'tu-lus* (that is, Augustus the Little), to resign the purple; and then, abolishing the title and office of

End of the Western Empire.

Emperor of the West, he proclaimed himself King of Italy (A.D. 476). Thus terminated the western division of the Great Roman Empire. The eastern division, usually called the Eastern or Greek Empire, continued to exist for nearly one thousand years.

The Roman Emperors.

[The date is that of the commencement of the reign.]

Name.	*Date.*
Augustus	31 B.C.
Tiberius	14 A.D.
Caligula	37 "
Claudius	41 "
Nero	54 "
Galba	68 "
Otho	69 "
Vitellius	69 "
Vespasian	69 "
Titus	79 "
Domitian	81 "
Nerva	96 "
Trajan	98 "
Hadrian	117 "
Antoninus Pius	138 "
Marcus Aurelius Antoninus	161 "
Commodus	180 "
Pertinax	192 "
Didius Julianus	193 "
Septimius Severus	193 "
Caracalla	211 "
Macrinus	217 "
Elagabalus	217 "
Alexander Severus	222 "
Maximin	235 "
Gordian I. / Gordian II.	238 "
Maximus and Balbinus (joint reign)	238 "
Gordianus III	238 "
Philip	244 "
Decius	249 "
Gallus	251 "
Æmilianus	253 A.D.
Valerian	254 "
Gallienus	260 "
Claudius II	268 "
Aurelian	270 "
Tacitus	275 "
Carinus	283 "
Diocletian / Maximian	284 " / 286 "
Galerius / Constantius	305 "
Constantine	306 "
Constantine II. / Constantius II. / Constans	337 "
Julian	361 "
Jovian	363 "
Valentinian I	364 "
Gratian	375 "
Valentinian II	383 "
Theodosius the Great	388 "
Honorius	395 "
Valentinian III	425 "
Maximus	455 "
Avitus	455 "
Majorian	457 "
Libius Severus	461 "
Arethemius	467 "
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For what purpose?

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General Chronological Review.

B.C.

2700. Commencement of the first Egyptian dynasty.
2200. Babylon founded.
1652. Exodus of the Israelites from Egypt.
1550. Cecrops at Athens.
1493. Cadmus in Bœotia.
1200. Migration of the Hellenic races.
1184. Troy burned by the Greeks.
1124. Great Dorian migration.
1095. Saul king of Israel.
1055. David begins to reign over Israel.
1015. Accession of Solomon.
975. Secession of the Ten Tribes. Kingdom of Israel divided.
878. Carthage founded by the Tyrians.
776. Commencement of the Olympiads.
753. Rome founded.
747. Era of Nabonassar.
721. Samaria taken. End of the kingdom of Israel.
625. Nineveh taken by the Medes.
Periander tyrant of Corinth.
624. Draco gives laws to Athens.
594. Legislation of Solon at Athens.
587. Tyre taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
586. Destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar.
560. Usurpation of the government of Athens by Pisistratus.
554. Crœsus taken prisoner by Cyrus. End of the kingdom of Lydia.
538. Babylon taken by Cyrus.
536. Restoration of the Jews by an edict of Cyrus.
525. Pelusium taken, and Egypt subdued by Cambyses.
522. Accession of Darius Hystaspes.
514. Conspiracy of Harmodius and Aristogiton.
510. Expulsion of Hippias from Athens.
509. Expulsion of the Tarquins from Rome.
500. Ionian revolt in Asia Minor.
494. Creation of the office of Tribunes at Rome.
490. Battle of Marathon.

B.C.
486. First agrarian law proposed at Rome.
485. Accession of Xerxes to the throne of Persia.
483. Banishment of Aristides by the Ostracism.
480. Battles of Thermopylæ and Salamis.
479. Battle of Platæa.
471. Confederacy of Delos. Commencement of Athenian supremacy.
Banishment of Themistocles by the Ostracism.
468. Death of Aristides.
461. Pericles at the head of public affairs at Athens.
458. The Æquians defeated by Cincinnatus.
451. Appointment of the Decemvirs at Rome.
449 Death of Cimon. End of the Persian war.
445. Intermarriage of patricians and plebeians permitted at Rome.
431. Commencement of the Peloponnesian War.
429. Plague at Athens. Death of Pericles.
415. Expedition against Sicily under Alcibiades and Nicias.
405. Battle of Ægospotamos.
Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse.
404. Death of Alcibiades.
403. The Thirty Tyrants expelled from Athens.
401. Battle of Cunaxa, and retreat of the Ten Thousand.
399. Condemnation and death of Socrates.
394. Victory of Agesilaus at Coronea.
The Spartan fleet defeated by Conon.
390. Rome taken and burnt by the Gauls.
387. Peace of Antalcidas.
384. Birth of Aristotle at Stagira.
371. Battle of Leuctra. The Spartans defeated by Epaminondas.
366. The Licinian laws proposed at Rome.
362. Battle of Mantinea. Death of Epaminondas.
359. Accession of Philip to the throne of Macedon.
355. End of the Social War in Greece.
346. End of the Sacred War.
344. The freedom of Syracuse restored by Timoleon.
343. War between the Romans and Samnites.
339. Latium annexed to the Roman territory.
338. Battle of Chæronea.
336. Accession of Alexander the Great.
334. Battle of the Granicus River.
333. Battle of Issus.

B.C.
331. Battle of Arbela.
331. The Spartans under Agis defeated by Antipater.
323. Death of Alexander at Babylon.
322. The Lamian War. Defeat of Leosthenes.
321. Defeat of the Romans by the Samnites.
Perdiccas assassinated.
317. Demetrius Phalereus at Athens.
Despotism re-established at Syracuse by Agathocles.
312. Kingdom of the Seleucidæ founded.
305. The Samnites subdued by the Romans.
301. Battle of Ipsus. Defeat of Antigonus.
295. Final defeat of the Samnites at Sentinum.
283. Death of Ptolemy Lagi.
Kingdom of Pergamus founded.
281. Lysimachus defeated by Seleucus.
280. Seleucus assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus.
Invasion of Greece by the Gauls.
279. The Gauls defeated at Delphi.
275. Pyrrhus defeated by the Romans at Beneventum.
264. Rome mistress of all Italy.
Commencement of the First Punic War.
261. Antiochus Soter defeated by the Gauls.
255. Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the Carthaginians.
247. Death of Ptolemy Philadelphus.
243. Aratus leader of the Achæan league.
241. End of the First Punic War.
Agis (IV.), king of Sparta, put to death.
221. Sparta taken by Antigonus Doson.
219. Saguntum taken by Hannibal.
218. Commencement of the Second Punic War.
The Romans defeated by Hannibal, at the Ticinus and Trebia.
217. Victory of Hannibal at Lake Trasimenus.
216. The Romans defeated at Cannæ.
213. Assassination of Aratus of Sicyon.
212. Taking of Syracuse by Marcellus. Death of Archimedes.
207. Defeat and death of Hasdrubal.
Defeat of the Spartans by Philopœmen.
205. Conquest of Spain by Scipio.
202. Hannibal defeated by Scipio at Zama.
197. Philip of Macedon defeated at Cynoscephalæ.

B.C.

190. Antiochus defeated by the Romans at Magnesia.
183. Philopœmen put to death by the Messenians.
Death of Hannibal by suicide.
168. Battle of Pydna. End of the Macedonian monarchy.
146. Taking of Corinth by Mummius. Greece a Roman province.
Destruction of Carthage by the Romans.
140. Viriatus assassinated, and Lusitania subjugated by the Romans.
133. Spain completely subjugated by the Romans.
132. Death of Tiberius Gracchus.
121. Caius Gracchus put to death.
106. Jugurtha taken prisoner by Marius and Sylla.
102. The Teutons defeated by Marius.
101. The Cimbrians defeated by Marius.
90. The Social War.
88. Commencement of the Mithridatic War. First Civil War
87. Marius's proscription.
82. Sylla's proscription.
72. Assassination of Sertorius in Spain.
71. Spartacus defeated and slain.
66. Pompey clears the Mediterranean of pirates.
Mithridates subdued. Pontus a Roman province.
63. Conspiracy of Catiline.
60. First Triumvirate.
55. Invasion of Britain by Cæsar.
53. Crassus defeated and slain by the Parthians.
48. Battle of Pharsalia. Pompey defeated.
46. Battle of Thapsus. Death of Cato.
44. Assassination of Cæsar.
43. Second Triumvirate.
Assassination of Cicero by order of Antony.
42. Battles of Philippi. Death of Brutus and Cassius.
31. Battle of Actium.
30. Death of Antony and Cleopatra.
29. Octavius emperor under the title of Augustus.
4. Birth of Christ.

A.D.

10. Defeat of Varus by the Germans.
14. Death of Augustus. Accession of Tiberius.
70. Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.
79. *Destruction* of Pompeii and Herculaneum.

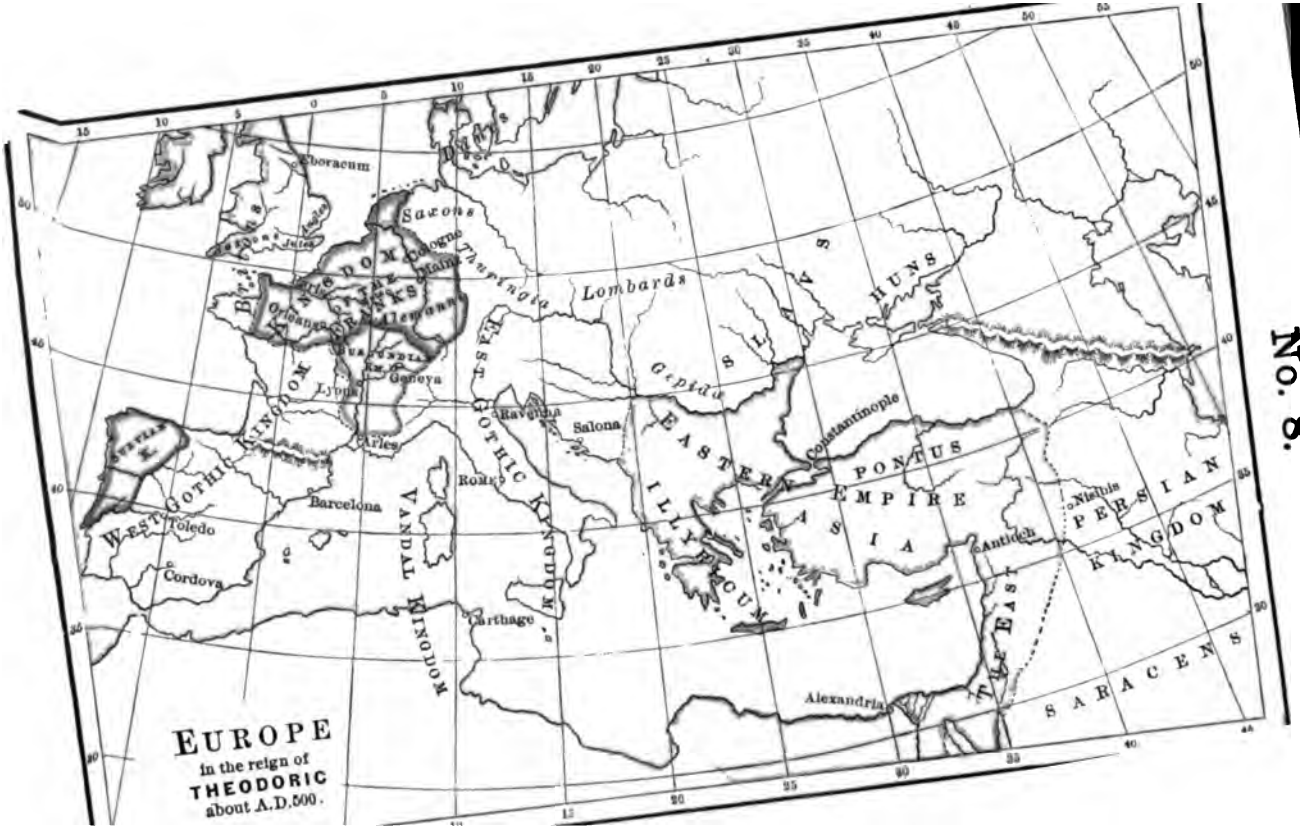
A.D.

81. Death of Titus.
98. Accession of Trajan.
117. Accession of Hadrian.
161. Accession of Marcus Aurelius.
180. Death of Marcus Aurelius.
193. Didius Julianus buys the empire of the Prætorians.
211. Death of Septimius Severus.
226. End of the Parthian Empire.
235. Assassination of Alexander Severus.
251. Decius defeated and slain by the Goths.
270. Dacia surrendered to the Goths.
273. Palmyra taken by Aurelian.
284. Diocletian proclaimed emperor.
305. Abdication of Diocletian.
311. Edict of Galerius in favor of the Christians.
313. Edict of Milan issued by Constantine.
323. Constantine emperor.
325. Council of Nice.
337. Death of Constantine.
361. Accession of Julian. Attempt to re-establish paganism.
363. Death of Julian the Apostate.
Christianity restored by Jovian.
378. Valens defeated by the Goths at Adrianople.
395. Division of the Empire by Theodosius.
403. Alaric defeated at Verona by Stilicho.
410. Rome pillaged by the Goths.
423. Death of Honorius.
427. The Vandals expelled from Spain.
441. Invasion of the Huns.
451. Attila, king of the Huns, defeated by Aetius.
455. Rome pillaged by the Vandals and Moors.
476. Romulus Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors, deposed.
Odoacer proclaimed king of Italy.
End of the Western Empire.

Synoptical View of the Rise and Fall of the Ancient Nations.

Nations.	Number of Centuries B.C.													
	25	20	15	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
Babylonian Monarchy	?—							538						
Earlier	?—					747								
Later							680	538						
Assyrian Empire	?—						625							
Egypt—Ancient	?—							525						
" Ptolemaic										323				30
Hebrews—Israel			1095				721							
Judah			976					586						
Median Monarchy							650	558						
Lydian "		?						554						
Persian Empire								550		331				
Greece, Independent		?								346				
Macedonian Empire						?				324				
Greece										346		146		
and Macedonia										324		168		
Syrian Kingdom of the Seleucidæ										312			65	
Pergamus										263		133		
Bithynia													74	
Paphlagonia													90	
Pontus										250			63	A.D.
Cappadocia										218				17
Armenia											190			114
Bactria											255			220
Parthian Empire				870								146		
Carthage						753							30	
Rome													30	476
Roman Empire														

Minor Kingdoms.



EUROPE
in the reign of
THEODORIC
about A.D.500.

No. 8.

PART II.

MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

I. MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

A GENERAL VIEW OF EUROPE, A.D. 500.

1. BEFORE taking up the march of events following the fall of the Western Roman Empire, it is necessary that we glance at the general state of Europe at that period. While the Empire was gradually becoming enfeebled, in the slow process of national corruption and decay, its ruin was precipitated by the repeated irruptions of the conquering races—the Goths, the Vandals, the Sueves, and other German tribes, also the Huns. These, at the end of the fifth century (A.D. 500), had established themselves as shown in the map (Map No. VIII.). Besides these races we must mention the Burgundians, a people who, in the beginning of the fifth century, had made their way from the shores of the Baltic, and located themselves in the country between the Rhone and the Alps,

Conquering races.

Burgundians.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. VIII.

What was the situation and extent of: THE EASTERN EMPIRE? EAST GOTHIC KINGDOM? WEST GOTHIC KINGDOM? BURGUNDIAN KINGDOM? FRANKISH KINGDOM? SUEVIAN KINGDOM? VANDAL KINGDOM?

Where was the territory of: THE HUNS? SLAVS? GEPIDÆ? LOMBARDS? DANES? SCOTS? PICTS? BRITONS? SAXONS? SARACENS? ALEMANNI?

What was the situation of: PERSIAN KINGDOM? ILLYRICUM? THRACE? PONTUS? THURINGIA? FRANCIA? Constantinople? Antioch? Nisibis? Ælia? Salona? Ravenna? Milan? Arles? Narbonne? Toulouse? Cordova? Toledo? Metz?

where at the period referred to they had founded a kingdom bearing their name.

2. The Goths, the first of the invading races who had pushed southward from Scandinavia, were now divided into the two branches of Eastern Goths (Ostrogoths) and Western Goths (Visigoths). The former had established themselves in Italy and in the lands lying immediately north of it; the latter possessed the southwestern part of France and the whole of Spain except the small portion in the northwest occupied by the kingdom of the Sueves (Suevi). This was an adventurous German race, one horde of whom located themselves in the south of Germany (hence the name Swabia, or Suabia); and another made a conquest of northern Spain, from which they were in part driven by the more powerful Visigoths.

Ostrogoths.

Visigoths.

Sueves.

3. Early in the fifth century, the Alans,* a people under Gothic influence, established themselves in the central part of the Spanish peninsula, possessing a territory that extended from sea to sea. Their dominions having been conquered by the Sueves, they had ceased, at the period here spoken of, to have any place in the map of Europe.

Alans.

4. The Vandals, who had occupied southern Spain,† had, at this period, passed into Africa, along the northern coast of which they founded a kingdom, with Carthage as its capital. This was the only Teutonic kingdom formed in that continent. It embraced also the large islands in the western part of the Mediterranean Sea, includ-

Vandals.

* "The Alans are a puzzling race, our accounts of whom are somewhat contradictory, but who may perhaps be most safely set down as a non-Aryan, or, at any rate, a non-Teutonic people, who had been largely brought under Gothic influences."—*Freeman's Historical Geography of Europe.*

† "The Vandals, though they passed altogether out of Spain, have left their name to this day in its southern part under the form of *Andalusia*, a name which, under the Saracen conquerors, spread itself over the whole peninsula."—*Freeman.*

ing Sicily. The Saxons, another fierce and powerful Teutonic race, had, for about half a century, kept up a series of invasions of the island of Britain, after its abandonment by the Romans, and had now established themselves in several parts of the island.

Saxons.

5. Another Teutonic race called the Gep'i-dæ had made their home in Dacia; while the Lombards were about to cross the Danube into Pannonia. Subsequently the latter race allied themselves with the Avars (*a-varz'*), and after destroying the kingdom of the Gepidæ, poured into Italy, where they founded a kingdom of their own. The Slavonic races (Slavs) at this time were just hovering on the northern frontier of the Eastern Empire, prepared to repeat in the east the part which the Teutons had played in the west.

Gepidæ and Lombards.

Slavs.

6. At this time the Eastern Roman Empire extended from the Danube to the southern limit of Egypt, and from the Adriatic Sea on the west to the Persian Kingdom on the east. Thus it maintained its integrity while the barbaric nations were dismembering the Western Empire, out of which the various states of mediæval and modern Europe were afterward formed.

Eastern Empire.

7. Nearly all these conquering races were Aryans; indeed, Europe from the earliest historic period has been almost exclusively an Aryan continent. To find it otherwise we should have to go back probably to 2500 B.C., a period antecedent to those great Aryan migrations from Asia of the Greek and Italo-Celtic races that swept westward over Europe, driving before them or exterminating the races that previously occupied it. Remnants of the latter are still discovered in the Basques (*basks*) of the Pyrenees, the relics of a great people, and the Fins and Laps of northern Europe. These are all that survive the conquests of the Celts, who were probably the vanguard of the Aryan conquering tribes.

Aryans.

Basques, etc.

ETHNOLOGICAL SYNOPSIS

OF THE RACES THAT INVADED EUROPE.

I. ARYANS, or INDO-EUROPEANS.

- I. Græco-Roman Races.
- II. Celtic Races.
  - 1. Gauls.
  - 2. Britons.
  - 3. Gael.
    - *a.* Irish.
    - *b.* Old Scots.
- III. Slavo-German Races.
  - 1. Teutonic races.
    - *a.* Goths, Vandals, and Gepidæ.
    - *b.* Scandinavians, or Normans.
    - *c.* Germans and Allemanni.
      - 1. Frisians.
      - 2. Saxons, Angles, Jutes.
      - 3. Low Germans.
    - *d.* Franks.
    - *e.* Burgundians.
    - *f.* Lombards.
    - *g.* Sueves.
  - 2. Slavs, or Slavonians.
    - *a.* Czechs.
    - *b.* Poles.
    - *c.* Baltics.
      - 1. Lithuanians
      - 2. Letts.
      - 3. Wends.

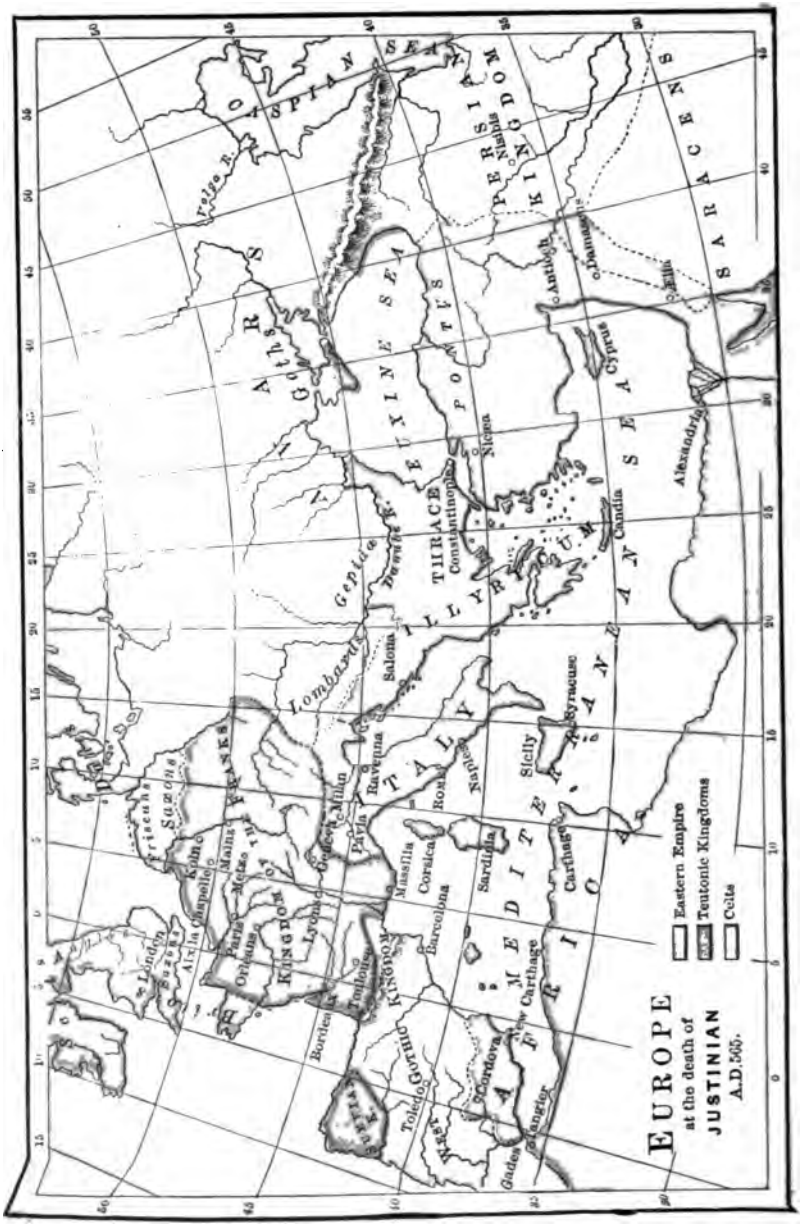
II. NON-ARYAN RACES.

- I. Basques, Fins, Laps.
- II. Turanian Races.
  - 1. Huns.
  - 2. Avars.
  - 3. Bulgarians.
  - 4. Magyars.
  - 5. Turks.
    - *a.* Seljuks.
    - *b.* Ottomans.

III. SEMITIC.

Saracens.

No. 9.


EUROPE
at the death of
JUSTINIAN
A.D.565.
Eastern Empire
Teutonic Kingdoms
Celts
CASPIAN SEA
Volga R.
PERSIAN KINGDOM
Nisibis
Antioch
Damascus
Elia
SARACENS
Cyprus
Alexandria
Candia
EUXINE SEA
PONTUS
Nicæa
THRACE
Constantinople
ILLYRICUM
Danube R.
Gepidæ
Lombards
Salona
ITALY
Ravenna
Milan
Pavia
Genoa
Rome
Naples
Sicily
Syracuse
Carthage
Sardinia
Corsica
Massilia
Barcelona
Toulouse
KINGDOM
Lyons
Orleans
Paris
Metz
Mainz
Koln
Aix la Chapelle
Friscans
Saxons
London
Bordeaux
GOTHIC
Toledo
Cordova
Gades
Tangier
New Carthage
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
Goths
AVARS

CHAPTER II.

THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

1. THE Eastern or Byz'an-tine Empire, sometimes called the Greek Empire, was founded in A. D. 395, when Theodosius divided the Roman Empire between his two sons, Honorius and Arcadius, assigning to the latter all the portion lying between the Adriatic Sea and the upper Tigris River. Arcadius was a weak monarch, who left the administration of the government to ambitious and corrupt ministers, while he himself lived in oriental luxury, indifferent to his duties and careless of the condition of his subjects. His death occurred in 408.

Foundation.

Arcadius.

2. During the reign of his successor, Theodosius II., the Huns under Attila, who assumed the title of the "Scourge of God," invaded the empire, and having vanquished the armies sent to oppose him, committed the most dreadful ravages. They dictated terms of peace in the suburbs of Constantinople, exacting the enormous annual tribute of 2100 pounds of gold, and the immediate payment of an immense sum. Soon afterward, on the death of Attila (453), the Hunnish Empire was dissolved; and the Ostrogoths, under their leader The-od'o-ric, became the dominant people in eastern Europe.

Huns.

3. Theodoric made war upon the Slavonic tribes, and conquered the lands lying between the Adriatic and Black seas.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. IX.

What was the situation and extent of: THE EASTERN EMPIRE? (Name the countries it embraced.) KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS? WEST GOTHIC KINGDOM? SUEVIAN KINGDOM?

Where was the territory of: The Saxons? The Frisians? The Angles? Britons? Scots? Danes? Lombards? Gepidæ? Avars? Saracens? Where was the Persian Kingdom?

There he established a kingdom, and became the friend and ally of Zeno, the Greek emperor, who lavished upon him all kinds of honors. This friendship, however, was not lasting; and Theodoric led his hosts into Thrace, and threatened Constantinople. To save himself Zeno instigated or commissioned the Gothic conqueror to enter Italy, where O-do-a'cer ruled, as he claimed, by authority of the Eastern emperor, over a population made up of many elements—native Italians, Visigoths, Huns, Vandals, Franks, etc.

Theodoric.

4. Theodoric, availing himself of Zeno's permission, invaded Italy, and after four years' war, in which he received assistance from the Visigoths of Gaul and Spain, Odoacer was deposed and put to death, and Theodoric, being invested with the title of king of Italy, fixed his capital at Ravenna (493). Subsequently he took up his residence at Rome (500). He reigned over Italy thirty-three years (493–526), with such wisdom and moderation as to earn the title of "Great." A large part of the Gothic nation had been transported into Italy, and after its conquest one third of all the lands were divided among the followers of Theodoric; and yet such was the efficiency of his government, that peace and prosperity were everywhere prevalent, and it was a common saying "that a purse of gold might be safely left in the fields."

Gothic conquest of Italy.

Government.

5. The famous reign of Jus-tin'i-an over the empire of the East commenced in 527, and lasted thirty-eight years. It is remarkable for the code of laws which the emperor caused to be framed, and for the victories of Bel-i-sa'ri-us and Nar'sēs, the two greatest generals of the age. The former defeated the Vandals, in Africa, and recovered the provinces which they had subdued (534). He next reduced Sicily, and, crossing into Italy, defeated the Goths and captured their capital, Ra-ven'na *(539)*. In 544 the barbarians having, under their king

Justinian.

Belisarius.

Tot'i-la, again invaded and reconquered Italy, Belisarius waged war against them for five years, but with very inadequate forces; and, through the jealousy and unjust suspicions of Justinian, was finally recalled.

6. After several years of retirement, Belisarius, in his old age, was called upon to defend Constantinople against the Bul-ga'ri-ans and Sla-vo'ni-ans,* who, after committing frightful ravages in various parts of the empire, threatened Constantinople. The aged hero, by his skill and valor, entirely defeated these fierce barbarians; but, four years afterward, notwithstanding his great services, he was unjustly accused of treason by the emperor, and the greater part of the last year of his life was passed in prison. He died in 565.

Bulgarians and Slavonians.

7. Meanwhile the war had been continued against the Goths in Italy. Rome, which had been taken by Totila, and its entire destruction threatened, was recaptured by Narses, and the Goths were defeated with great slaughter, their king, Totila, being slain (552). After he had gained another great victory over the Goths the next year, and defeated the Franks and other German tribes who had ravaged the peninsula from the Alps to Otranto, Narses entered Rome as a conqueror, and was afterward appointed by Justinian Exarch of Italy. He fixed his court at Ravenna, and continued to govern the country till the death of Justinian (565), by whose successor he was recalled. He died in Rome a short time afterward, at the age, it is said, of 95.

Conquest of Italy.

8. During the reign of Justinian, the A-vars',† a race similar in origin to the Huns, fleeing from the Turks, who

* The *Bulgarians* were the remains of the Huns who, after the death of Attila, retreated to the Euxine and the lake Mæotis. The *Slavonians* were a barbarous race from the plains of Russia, who afterward settled in the vicinity of the Baltic Sea.

† "In the thirty-first year of the reign of Justinian, an embassy of the Avars appeared at Constantinople. This people, who were Tartars, and belonged, like

lived at that time near the Altai Mountains, crossed the Tan'a-is and Bo-rys'the-nēs (Don and Dnieper rivers), and advanced into Poland and Germany. They then passed to the Danube, and, subduing the Bulgarians, took possession of the country which the latter had occupied (Dacia). This period is also noted for the passage to the south of the Lombards,* who had been invited by the emperor to enter Noricum and Pannonia, in order to check the advance of another barbarous race called the Gep'i-dæ. These, after a thirty years' war, were almost entirely exterminated by the Lombards, under Al'bo-in, assisted by the Avars, the latter of whom continued to occupy Dacia and some of the adjacent countries for more than two centuries.

Avars.

Lombards.

Gepidæ.

9. In the reign of Justinian's successor, the Lombards, under Alboin, entered Italy (568), being invited, as it is said, by Narses, in revenge for the affront of his recall. In a short time they conquered the whole country, except a small portion which continued, under the name of the Exarchate of Ravenna, in possession of the Eastern Empire. The kingdom of the Lombards in Italy lasted more than two centuries, their seat of government being Pa-vi'a. The famous "iron crown" of the Lom-

Conquest of Italy.

the Huns, to the Turkish stock, had then arrived at the foot of Mount Caucasus, flying before the Turks, whose name now appears for the first time in history. The Avar ambassadors professed their willingness to devote themselves to the service of the emperor, and destroy all the enemies who disturbed his repose; but they claimed, as the price of their alliance and the reward of their valor, precious gifts, annual subsidies, and fruitful possessions. Justinian was now above seventy-five years; his mind, as well as his body, was feeble and languid; and the conqueror of Africa and Italy, careless of the permanent interest of his people, aspired only to end his days in the bosom of inglorious peace. In a studied oration, he imparted to the Senate his resolution to dissemble the insult and to purchase the friendship of the Avars; and the whole Senate, like the mandarins of China, applauded the incomparable wisdom and foresight of their sovereign."—*Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.*

* The name is derived from the Latin form *Langobardi*, or *Longobardi*, supposed by some to refer to the long beards by which these people were characterized, but more probably derived from the word *parta*, or *barte*, a battle-ax. The Romans first came in contact with this tribe on the lower Elbe in the first century.

bards is said to have been presented to one of their queens by the celebrated Roman pontiff, Gregory the Great, as a reward for converting the king to the Catholic faith (about 600).

10. The reigns of Justinian and several of his successors were much disturbed by the encroachments of Persia, then the most extensive and powerful monarchy of the East; but the emperor Her-a-cli'us, in the beginning of the seventh century (622–628), in three great expeditions, in which he displayed remarkable boldness, perseverance, and military skill, defeated Khos'ru, the greatest of the Persian monarchs, and effectually broke the Persian power. Eight years afterward, the last of the Persian dynasty called the Sas-san'i-des, which had occupied the throne for four centuries, was defeated by the Saracens, and in a few years the whole of the Persian dominions had yielded to their victorious arms.

Persia.

Khosru.

Saracens.

11. The reign of Heraclius is notable for the commencement of the attacks of the Saracens upon the Eastern Empire. Syria was subdued (638), Damascus * and Jerusalem falling a prey to these Mohammedan zealots seven centuries after Pompey had achieved the conquest of Syria and annexed it to the Roman Republic. Egypt shared the same fate within the next two years, Alexandria being taken after a siege of fourteen months (640). It was on this occasion that the great Alexandrian library was

Saracen conquests.

* "This renowned and beautiful city, one of the largest and most magnificent of the East, and reputed to be the oldest in the world, stood in a plain of wonderful richness and fertility, covered with groves and gardens, and bounded by an amphitheater of hills, the skirts of Mount Lebanon. A river, called by the ancients Chrysorrhee, or the stream of gold, flows through this plain, feeding the canals and water-courses of its gardens, and the fountains of the city. The commerce of the place bespoke the luxuriance of the soil; dealing in wines, silks, wool, prunes, raisins, figs of unrivaled flavor, sweet-scented waters, and perfumes. The fields were covered with odoriferous flowers, and the rose of Damascus has become famous throughout the world. This is one of the few, the very few, cities famous in ancient times, which still retain a trace of ancient delights."—*Irving's Mahomet and His Successors.*

burned, the bigoted Mohammedan Caliph saying that, if the books agreed with the Koran, they were unnecessary; and if they contradicted it they were pernicious.*

12. During the next half century the empire was despoiled of province after province by the irresistible valor and activity of the Saracens, who twice laid siege to Constantinople itself, but were repelled from its walls, partly by the use of the famous "Greek fire." † During the same period, also, the Bulgarians, who in the previous century had been subject to the Avars, crossed the Danube, followed by various Slavonian tribes, the Ser'vi-ans, Bos'nians, and Cro-a'tians, and, having vanquished the Roman armies sent against them, founded (680) the Kingdom of Bulgaria, in the country a part of which still bears this name. This kingdom was a formidable enemy of the Greek Empire till the eleventh century, when, after a war of several years, it was entirely subdued. It then became again a province of the empire, and so remained till 1187, when it once more regained its independence.

Bulgaria.

13. In the ninth century (865), the Russians,‡ having

* The Alexandrian library was a vast collection of manuscripts. The order of the Caliph was punctually obeyed, the books being distributed among the four thousand baths of the city; but so numerous were they that it took six months to consume them.

† The Greek fire was an invention of the Saracens, but a deserter from the service of the Caliph had disclosed the secret of its preparation to the emperor. It was composed of bitumen, sulphur, and pitch, and was poured from caldrons, or projected in fire-balls, or on arrows and javelins, around which flax was twisted, saturated with the compound. It was also blown through long copper tubes, sometimes from the prows of fire-ships. For four centuries the mode of preparing this inflammable compound was kept as a secret by the Greek Empire, and the vengeance of heaven was imprecated upon whomsoever should divulge it, the people being taught to believe that an angel had communicated it for the defense of Constantinople.

‡ "The Russian is, of all the present European peoples, the one which may lay the best-grounded claims to antiquity of residence in its present abodes. In the darkness of ancient centuries, extended over vast plains, into which the genius of Greece and the arms of Rome never penetrated, this people were slowly ripening to nationality during the ages of classic splendor, when Solon gave laws to the Athenians, and Rome strove after principles of public justice and liberty."—*Bancroft.*

descended the Dnieper River in their rude boats and sailed into the Bosporus, made an attack upon Constantinople, but were repulsed. A few years later (889), the Magyars (*mod-yars'*), or Hungarians, commenced to make irruptions into the countries near the Danube, extending their ravages westward into the German Empire. They defeated the Bulgarians, and threatened Constantinople. The next formidable enemy of the empire were the Turks, who abandoned their ancient habitations in Central Asia; and, in the eleventh century, taking advantage of the dissensions of the Saracens, invaded their dominions and captured Bagdad (1055). Previous to this they had carried their conquering arms as far as India. In 1090 they had subdued Asia Minor and Syria, and extended their sway from the Hellespont to the borders of Chinese Tartary. Of this kingdom Ispahan was the capital.

Russians.

Turks.

14. These Turks belonged to the tribe called Seljuks* (*sel'jooks*), and are not to be confounded with the Ot'toman Turks, to be treated of hereafter. The dominions of the Seljuks were afterward divided, four monarchies being formed, of which Persia was the chief; and a new kingdom was established in Asia Minor, called the Sultanate of Roum (*room*), which lasted about two centuries (from 1075 to 1272), during which period it waged frequent wars with the Greek Empire. Its capital was at first Nice, in Bithynia, but in 1097 was removed to I-co'ni-um.† It was the taking of the holy sepulcher by the Seljuks that led to those remarkable expeditions called the Crusades. In the first of these, Nice,

Roum.

Crusades.

* "The Seljuks were a tribe of Turcomans, followers and subjects of their great chief Seljuk, who first became distinguished in history by the conquests of the Sultan Mahmoud, who was succeeded by Alp Arslan (*The Lion*), under whom the Emperor Romanus was defeated and taken prisoner."—*Gibbon.*

† An ancient city of Phrygia, in Asia Minor. The Kingdom of Roum (*i.e. of the Romans*) was afterward called the *Kingdom of Iconium.*

the capital of Sol'y-man, sultan of Roum, was taken (1097), and soon after Antioch and Jerusalem * (see page 409).

15. In the fourth of these expeditions, during the reign of a usurping emperor at Constantinople, the Crusaders (French and Venetians) were induced by the son of the lawful emperor to abandon the proper object of the expedition and attack Constantinople, with the view to restore the union of the Roman and Greek churches, which had separated on account of certain differences in doctrine. The city was accordingly besieged with all their forces, and, mainly by means of the powerful fleet of the Venetians, was taken; and the lawful emperor was restored to the throne. He being, however, the next year, by an insurrection of the inhabitants, deprived of his throne and put to death, the Crusaders again besieged the city, and took it by storm (1204).

Constantinople taken.

16. Most of the dominions of the empire were then divided between the French and Venetians, who appointed Baldwin, Count of Flanders, emperor. He and his successors, called the Latin Emperors, continued to occupy the throne till 1261, when the Greeks, who in the meanwhile had held Nice as their capital, again obtained possession of Constantinople, under their emperor Pal-æ-ol'o-gus. This emperor expelled the Latins from the city; but some few Latin principalities continued to exist within the limits of the empire until its final destruction.

Latin emperors.

17. Meanwhile, another tremendous revolution had taken place in western Asia, occasioned by an incursion of the

* "Daily, for eight days, and barefooted, the Crusaders had walked in procession round Jerusalem; which done, a general assault was made by the whole army, Godfrey's tower rolled to the walls, and on Friday, the 15th of July, 1099, at three o'clock, on the very day, and the very hour of the Passion, Godfrey of Bouillon descended from his tower on the walls of Jerusalem. The city was taken, and a fearful massacre followed; for the Crusaders, in their blind fury, not taking into account the distance of time, believed that in each infidel they slew in Jerusalem they put to death one of the executioners of Jesus Christ."—*Michelet's History of France.*

Mon'gols, a Tartar race who, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, under the renowned chief Gen'ghis Khan, subdued a large part of China, overturned the flourishing kingdom of Kha-rasm (now Khiva), and conquered the greater part of Persia. Populous territories, abounding in the noblest works of mankind, were made entirely desolate, so that the peaceful industry of centuries has been scarcely sufficient to repair the ravages of a few years. After the death of Genghis (1227), the Mongols passed into Syria and Asia Minor, pillaged Aleppo and Damascus, and destroyed the kingdom of Roum, or Iconium, the last Seljuk sultan seeking a refuge among the Greeks of Constantinople (1272). The Mongols subsequently carried their victorious arms into Europe, and devastated or conquered many of its most fertile and populous countries.

Mongols.

18. Soon after these events, and while the descendants of Palæologus still continued a feeble administration at Constantinople, there arose a power which was destined to cause the final destruction of the Byzantine Empire, and establish upon its ruins one which should rival it in extent, and far surpass it in the splendor of its conquests. This was the Ottoman Turks, so called from the founder of the empire, Oth'man, or Os'man, who in 1299 invaded Asia Minor, and in a few years succeeded in establishing there a kingdom, the capital of which was fixed at Pru'sa, in Bithynia. This kingdom soon became one of the most flourishing states of the East.

Ottomans.

19. The remaining history of the Greek Empire, during a century and a half, is but the narrative of its contests with the Ottomans, who successively wrested from it the fairest portions of its dominions. In the middle of the fourteenth century (1360), Am'u-rath, one of the successors of Othman, captured Adrianople, and made it his capital. He afterward subdued Thrace and Macedon, but fell at Cos-so'va, in Servia, where, however, he defeated an

Amurath.

immense army of Christians, amounting, it is said, to 500,000 men (1389). His successor, Baj'a-zet, continued the tide of conquest; and for ten years besieged Constantinople, but was called away to defend his own dominions against the celebrated chieftain Ti-mour', or Tam'er-lane, by whom he was defeated and taken prisoner (1402).

Bajazet.

20. This delayed the fall of the Greek Empire for some years; but Timour's empire having been dismembered, the Turks resumed their encroachments, and, finally, under Mohammed II., after a siege of fifty-three days, took Constantinople by storm (May 29, 1453). Constantine (Palæologus), the last of the Eastern emperors, fell in the battle, and the inhabitants were either massacred or carried into slavery. This event was soon followed by the subjugation of all the remaining dominions of the empire, which thus, after an existence of 1058 years, was brought to an end. The minute history of the dynasties and emperors which followed each other during this long period, presents probably the most shocking and disgraceful narrative of imbecility, wickedness, and crime contained in any part of the annals of the world.

Taking of Constantinople.

History of the Eastern Empire.

Byzantine Civilization.

21. In the preceding brief sketch, we have rapidly traced the most important revolutions which, during more than a thousand years, the Eastern Empire suffered from the successive incursions of the barbarous hordes that poured into it from the east and south, and finally broke it into pieces. We must now as rapidly sketch the leading features of the civilization of that long period. Though, during the greater part of the existence of the empire, nearly all the culture, whether of art, science, literature, or society, that could be found in the world, centered in Constantinople, it was still not a living, progressive

Eastern civilization.

civilization, such as the modern states of Europe afterward attained, but rather a relic of past splendor, a feeble attempt to apply to the changed condition of things the faded glories of the ancient Greek world. We will here speak briefly of the church, literature, commerce, and art.

22. The Church. The Greek Church, sometimes called the Greek Catholic or Eastern Church, was separated from the Western or Roman Catholic Church in consequence of differences as to doctrine and belief which occurred during the fifth and sixth centuries. There were, also, claims to dignity and authority on the part of the emperor and patriarch of Constantinople—the head of the Greek Church—which the Bishops of Rome could not sanction. The conflict between the two branches of the Christian Church, though continued for centuries, did not become a permanent schism until the eleventh century; and, even down to the taking of Constantinople, there was an almost continuous effort on the part of the Roman head of the Church to reconcile the differences.

Greek Church.

Church conflicts.

23. Literature. By the conquests of Alexander the Great and his successors, the use of the Greek language became general in the East; and, consequently, this was the national language of the Greek Empire. Though essentially the language of the ancient Greeks, many changes and corruptions had been introduced during the intervening centuries. The writings of the first five centuries were chiefly theological; but among their authors were many able and learned men, such as Cyr'il, bishop of Alexandria (died 444), and the two church historians, Socrates and Sozomen, of the fifth century. Among the most important works of this period were the famous treatises— the *Code, Institutes,* and *Pandects of Justinian*—containing a compilation of the Roman laws. These were prepared, by order of Jus-

Greek language.

Writings.

Civil law.

tinian, by Tri-bo'nian, an eminent lawyer (died 545). To these must be added the historian Proco'pius, who was patronized by Justinian and Belisarius.

24. To a later period belonged John of Damascus, the last of the Greek fathers, who wrote a treatise on the orthodox faith (730), and Syncel'lus, with other historical compilers; but there is little in the works of the "early Byzantine writers," either as regards substance or style, to commend them to general attention. About the time of the Crusades there was a brief intellectual revival among the Greeks of Constantinople and Asia Minor, and a few writers of respectable talent appeared, such as Theophylact, who wrote a work on *The Education of Princes*, for the use of the Court of Constantinople. The most interesting literary character of this period was the princess Anna Comnena (1083–1148), a lady of high culture and considerable genius. She was the daughter of the emperor Alexius Comnenus. Learned men continued to flourish in Constantinople till it was taken by the Turks.

Other writers.

Revival.

Anna Comnena.

25. Commerce. Constantinople was a great emporium during the whole Byzantine period, its situation affording it many natural advantages for extensive commerce. Its harbor, the Golden Horn, capacious and well protected, provided accommodation and shelter for ships of all sizes, and thus for many centuries attracted the commerce of the whole civilized world. "Whatever rude commodities were collected in the forests of Germany or Scythia, as far as the sources of the Tanais and the Borysthenes; whatever was manufactured by the skill of Europe or Asia; the corn of Egypt, and the gems and spices of the furthest India, were brought by the varying winds to the port of Constantinople."

Constantinople as a mart.

26. The introduction of the silk-worm, in the reign of Justinian, gave a great impulse to both manufacturing and

commercial industry.* Silk-worm eggs became an article of extensive trade, and mulberry-trees were cultivated in many parts. The Peloponnesus received the name Morea from its extensive growth of these trees. The trade with India was of chief importance. The Persians obstructing the Euphrates valley, this trade was carried on through Egypt; but after Alexandria had been taken by the Saracens, a route was opened, by way of the Greek settlements on the Black Sea and western Tartary, which continued to be employed for two centuries. An active trade was also carried on with the west—Spain and the republics of Italy.

Silk.

Indian trade.

Western trade.

27. Byzantine Art, as distinct from the earlier styles, dates from the reign of Justinian, during which it received a great impulse from the many works constructed under the direction of that monarch. This was especially the case in church architecture. The largest edifice of this kind constructed under Justinian was the church of St. Sophia (now the great mosque of Constantinople).† It is a type of the Byzantine style, the chief features of which is the free use of the column and the dome. This style stands between the classic or pagan and the western Gothic styles. Sculpture and painting were cultivated by the Byzantine Greeks, almost exclusively in connection with their system of church decoration.

Date.

Church building.

Sculpture and painting.

* Silk was at first brought from China, but of what and how it was produced was for many years a mystery. At last, notwithstanding the efforts of the emperor of China to prevent it, the eggs or cocoons of silk-worms were brought to the Emperor Justinian by some missionaries, who, according to Procopius, concealed them in hollow sticks.

† The original church of St. Sophia (Divine Wisdom) was built by Constantine, but was destroyed by fire in the reign of Justinian, who within six years caused a new cathedral to be constructed. This was partly thrown down by an earthquake, when it was again restored by the emperor. "In the thirty-sixth year of his reign Justinian celebrated the second dedication of a temple which remains, after twelve centuries, a stately monument of his fame."—*Gibbon.*

Principal Greek Emperors.

Name.	*Date of reign.*
Arcadius	395- 408
Theodosius II.	408- 450
Marcian	450- 457
Leo I. (Thracian)	457- 474
Leo II.	474- 474
Zeno	474- 491
Anastasius I.	491- 518
Justin I.	518- 527
Justinian I.	527- 565
Justin II.	565- 578
Three reigns	578- 610
Heraclius I.	610- 641
Twelve reigns	641- 717
Leo III.	717- 741
Constantine V	741- 775
Nine reigns	775- 842
Michael III.	842- 867
Basil I.	867- 886
Leo VI.	886- 911
Constantine VII.	911- 959
Five reigns	959- 976
Basil II.	976-1025
Constantine IX.	1025-1028
Four reigns	1028-1042
Constantine X.	1042-1054
Seven reigns	1054-1081
Alexius I. (Comnenus)	1081-1118
Joannes II. "	1118-1143
Manuel I. "	1143-1181
Six reigns	1181-1204

Latin Emperors.

Baldwin I.	1204-1205
Henry III.	1206-1216
Three reigns	1216-1237
Baldwin II.	1237-1261

Greek Emperors of Nicæa.

Theodorus I.	1206-1222
Joannes III.	1222-1255
Two reigns	1255-1261

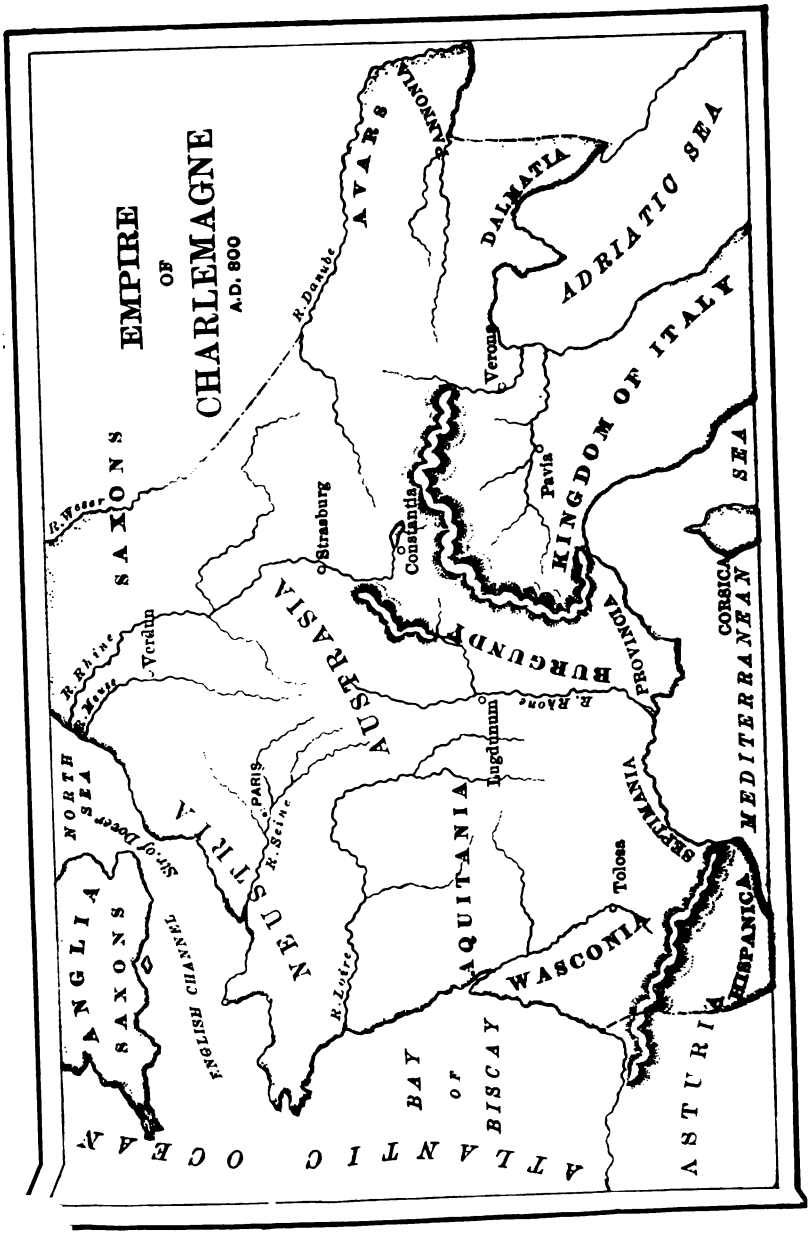
Greek Emperors Restored.

Michael VIII. (Palæologus)	1261-1282
Andronicus II. "	1282-1328
Five reigns "	1328-1448
Constantine XIII. "	1448-1453

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
The Eastern Empire founded under Arcadius	395
Italy invaded by the Ostrogoths, under Theodoric	493
Italy wrested from the Goths by Belisarius	539
Italy invaded by the Lombards	568
Conquest of Syria by the Saracens	636
Alexandria, in Egypt, taken by the Saracens	640
Persian monarchy overturned by the Saracens	651
The kingdom of Bulgaria founded	680
The Russians make an attack on Constantinople	865
Bagdad taken by the Seljuk Turks	1055
Roum, or Iconium, founded by the Seljuks	1075
Jerusalem taken by the Seljuks	1076
Nice, the capital of Roum, taken by the Crusaders	1097
Constantinople taken by the Crusaders	1204
Invasion of the East by Genghis Khan	1215-1227
Kingdom of Roum destroyed by the Mongols	1272
Invasion of Asia Minor by the Ottoman Turks	1299
Adrianople taken by the Ottomans under Amurath	1360
The Christians defeated by Amurath at Cassova	1390
Bajazet, the Turkish emperor, taken prisoner by Timour the Tartar	1402
Constantinople taken by the Turks. *End of the Greek Empire*	1453

No. 10.


EMPIRE
OF
CHARLEMAGNE
A.D. 800
AVARS
PANNONIA
R. Danube
DALMATIA
ADRIATIC SEA
KINGDOM OF ITALY
Verona
Pavia
Constantia
Strasburg
R. Weser
SAXONS
R. Rhine
R. Meuse
Verdun
AUSTRASIA
BURGUNDY
PROVINCIA
R. Rhone
Lugdunum
CORSICA
SEA
MEDITERRANEAN
NORTH SEA
Str. of Dover
PARIS
R. Seine
NEUSTRIA
SEPTIMANIA
Toloss
ANGLIA
SAXONS
ENGLISH CHANNEL
R. Loire
AQUITANIA
WASCONIA
HISPANICA
BAY OF BISCAY
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ASTURIA

CHAPTER III.

THE CONQUERING RACES.

SECTION I.

THE FRANKS AND THE NORMANS.

1. WE now come to the history of western and central Europe from the fall of the Western Empire (476) to the general establishment of the modern European states in the ninth and tenth centuries. This period of invasion, war, and revolution, carried on by the barbaric hordes in their restless migrations, has been aptly called the Dark Ages; for ignorance, depravity, and superstition almost universally characterized the people and their rulers. Prominent among the barbarous tribes of this period were the Franks, the Normans, the Saxons, and the Saracens.

Dark ages.

Barbarous tribes.

2. The Franks* (*Freemen*) were a confederation of German tribes living in the country near the lower part of the

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. X.

How far did the empire of Charlemagne extend from east to west? What river was its eastern boundary? How far did it extend toward the south?—*Ans.* To southern Italy. How far did it extend toward the north?—*Ans.* To the Baltic Sea. What country was east of the Rhone River? In the southwestern part?—*Ans.* Wasconia, afterward called Gascony. What people dwelt on the southern bank of the Upper Danube? What people occupied both banks of the Weser? What province near the head-waters of the Meuse and Rhone? What province south of the Loire River? What province bordered on the English Channel? What was the situation of Paris? Tolosa (Toulouse)? Lugdunum (Lyons)? Constantia (Constance)? Pavia? Verdun? Strasburg? Verona? ANGLIA (England)?

* "The Franks were not a people, but a confederation, which varied in its members as it fluctuated in its influence, but which must have been powerful at the

Rhine, who in the third century successfully opposed the Romans, committing great devastations throughout Gaul and Spain. In the fifth century (486), Clo'vis, chief of a tribe known as the Sa'lian Franks, invaded Gaul, and having victoriously overrun the greater part of it, founded therein a new monarchy, the capital of which he fixed at Lu-te'tia, or Paris.* He chose for his queen Clo-til'da, a Christian princess, and niece of the king of Burgundy, a country situated east of the Rhone; and through her influence he embraced Christianity.† He gained several great victories over the Al-e-man'ni—a powerful confederation of German tribes—and defeated the Burgundians

Franks.

Clovis.

close of the fourth century. At this period the Franks had indisputably large possessions in the empire. Under the name of Franks, Germans of every race composed the best troops of the imperial armies and the body-guard of the emperor. Floating between Germany and the empire, they generally declared against the other barbarians whose irruptions into Gaul succeeded theirs. They opposed, though unsuccessfully, the great invasion of the Burgundians, Suevi, and Vandals, in 406, and many of them fought against Attila. Seated in the north of France, in the northwest corner of Europe, the Franks held their ground against the pagan Saxons, the latest swarm from Germany; against the Arian Visigoths; and, finally, against the Saracens; all three equally hostile to the divinity of Jesus Christ. Therefore, it is not without reason that the French monarchs have been styled the eldest sons of the Church."—*Michelet's History of France.*

The Franks gave name to France (*Francia*), as also to Franconia; just as the Alemanni imposed their name upon Germany (French, *l'Allemagne*).

"The words 'frank and free,' usually grouped together, are in fact the same in origin and meaning. The name *Frank* carries the sense of boldness, defiance, freedom."—*G. W. Kitchin.*

* *Lutetia* was the name given by the Romans to the collection of huts built of mud (*lutum*), and inhabited by a Gallic tribe called the *Parisii*, from whom it was afterward called *Paris.*

† "Clovis's destiny was principally determined by his adopting the Christian faith. The chief agent in his conversion was his queen, Clotilda, daughter [niece] of Gundobald, king of Burgundy, his neighbor and ally. By her affectionate exhortations, the mind of her husband was disposed to Christianity, though he long hesitated to embrace a religion which imposed many restrictions. At length, in a battle with the Alemanni, Clovis, hard pressed, was induced to vow, that if he should obtain a victory, which seemed extremely doubtful, he would become a Christian. The king of the Alemanni was slain, his army discomfited, and the acquisition of his dominions greatly augmented the power of the Franks. After this conquest, Clovis adopted the Christian faith, according to his vow, and was baptized in the Cathedral at Rheims, where it has been ever since the custom to crown and consecrate the monarchs of France."—*Scott.*

and the Visigoths, the latter of whom were deprived of nearly all their possessions in Gaul.

Divisions.

3. After the death of Clovis (511), his extensive dominions were divided among his four sons; but the permanent division did not take place till some time afterward (567). Then were formed three kingdoms: 1. Aus-tra'sia, in the eastern part; 2. Neus'tria, north of the Loire; and 3. Burgundy, which had been annexed to the Frankish dominions by conquest (534); and to this was added a part of Aquitaine (*ak-we-tain'*), a kingdom lying between the Loire (*lwar*) and the Pyrenees. These were afterward finally united under a single monarch by the conquest of Neustria by the Austrasians (687).

Frankish monarchy.

Merovingians.

In the history of France, Clovis and his descendants are called the Mer-o-vin'gi-ans, from Mer-o-væ'us, one of their ancestors. This dynasty lasted a little more than 250 years (486–752).

Descendants of Clovis.

4. The immediate successors of Clovis were noted for their constant dissensions, their vices, and the dreadful crimes which they perpetrated to obtain possession of each other's dominions. Some were great warriors, like Clovis himself; but, for more than a century previous to the termination of the dynasty, they were but nominally kings [called *Fainéants* (*fa-na-ong*)—Do-nothings], all the royal power being exercised by the great ministers, styled Mayors of the Palace. This high office was made hereditary by Pep'in d'Her-is-tal', who held it from 687 to 714. He was succeeded by the famous Charles Mar-tel' (the Hammer), who, when the Saracens, after completing the conquest of Spain, crossed the Pyrenees, threatening not only the subjugation of France but of all Europe, met them near Tours (*toor*), and inflicted upon them so severe a defeat that they were completely checked in their long career of conquest (732).

Pepin d'Heristal.

Charles Martel.

5. Pepin the Short,* the successor of Charles Martel, having rendered important aid in repelling the Lombards from Rome, was, by the authority of Pope Zach'ary, placed upon the throne of the Franks, and the weak Chil'de-ric, the last of the Merovingians, was formally deposed (752). Thus commenced the Carlovingian dynasty. This period is also noted for the termination of the rule of the Eastern emperors in Italy, and the commencement of the temporal dominion of the Roman Pontiff, whose government of the territories previously included within the Exarchate of Ravenna was acknowledged and sustained by Pepin.

Pepin the Short.

Temporal power of the Pope.

6. At the death of Pepin (768), his two sons Car'lo-man and Charles succeeded, but the former dying, Charles [afterward known as Charlemagne (*shar-le-mahn'*)—Charles the Great] became the sole monarch of the Franks, and the ruler over not only France but a large part of Germany. He made war upon the Lombards in Italy, and having taken Pavia, their capital (774), put an end to this monarchy, which had lasted about two centuries. He also, after several years of severe war, reduced the Saxons on the lower Weser (*we'zer*), and invading Spain, which was then in the possession of the Saracens, conquered all that part lying north of the E'bro (778). On his return through the Pyrenees, the rearguard of his army was surprised by the Basques, at Ron-ces-val'les, and defeated, its brave commander Ro'land, the favorite nephew of Charlemagne, being slain. This battle gave rise to many romantic stories, and formed the subject of the most popular epic poem of the Middle Ages, the famous "Song of Roland."

Charlemagne.

7. Charlemagne also gained some victories over the Avars, in Pannonia, and other eastern races; and in 800, while on a visit to Italy, the Pope (Leo III.) crowned him Emperor of

* So called from his very low stature, being, it is said, only four and a half feet high, while his son Charlemagne was seven feet in height.

the Romans, thus reviving the Empire of the West, the capital of which Charlemagne fixed at Aix-la-Chapelle (*ākes-lah-sha-pel′*). This monarch was not only distinguished for his military talents, but was passionately fond of learning, receiving instruction from Alcuin (*al′kwin*), a Saxon, the most accomplished scholar of the age. He also showed the greatness as well as beneficence of his character by the many useful enterprises which he planned for the benefit of his people, and by his efforts to dispel the ignorance which universally prevailed. His death occurred in 814.*

Emperor of the West.

Alcuin.

8. **Louis**, his son and successor, called *le Déb-on-naire* (the Easy), was of too mild and unwarlike a disposition to reign over an empire so extensive, and composed of such heterogeneous parts; and his own sons formed conspiracies against him. After his death, in 840, three divisions were formed, one for each of his sons; but they soon quarreled, and the great battle of Fon-te-naille′ was fought (841), in which, it is said, so many of the bravest generals and soldiers of the empire fell that it was afterward impossible to repel the incursions of the Normans, who for many years continued their piratical attacks. Two years after this battle (843), a treaty was made by the contending parties (at Verdun), according to which a new distribution of the imperial dominions was made among the three sons—Louis receiving Germany; Charles, France; and

Louis le Débonnaire.

Normans.

Treaty of Verdun.

* "A strong sympathy for intellectual excellence was the leading characteristic of Charlemagne, and this undoubtedly biased him in the chief political error of his conduct, that of encouraging the power and pretensions of the hierarchy. But perhaps his greatest eulogy is written in the disgrace of succeeding times, and the miseries of Europe. He stands alone like a beacon upon a waste or a rock in the broad ocean. His scepter was as the bow of Ulysses, which could not be drawn by any weaker hand. In the dark ages of European history, the reign of Charlemagne affords a solitary resting-place between two long periods of turbulence and ignominy, deriving the advantages of contrast both from that of the preceding dynasty and of a posterity for whom he had formed an empire which they were unworthy and unequal to maintain."—*Hallam's Europe during the Middle Ages.*

Lothaire, Italy. Charles the Fat, a son of Louis, obtained possession of the whole in 884; but three years afterward it was finally separated, Germany alone retaining the imperial title and dignity. The other divisions were France, Italy, and Burgundy or Arles (*arl*),* this latter

Divisions.

kingdom having regained its independence during the weak reigns of some of the preceding Carlovingian princes.

The Normans.

9. The Normans were a bold, active, and enterprising race from Scandinavia and Denmark, and were sometimes called

* So named because its dukes, or rulers, for some time made the city of Arles their capital.

Norsemen or Northmen.* They commenced their ravages in France during the reign of Charlemagne; but under his successors, taking advantage of the weakness of the government, these Vikings or sea-kings, as they were also called, sailed up the navigable rivers, pillaged and burnt the great towns, and retired dragging away many of the inhabitants with them. During the reign of an imbecile king, named Charles the Simple, they ascended the Seine (*sane*), and besieged Paris; whereupon the king, unable to make any resistance, finally ceded to their ruler, Duke Rollo, a large district in the north of France, afterward called Normandy (912).† The same active race about this time crossed the Atlantic, and established colonies in the Faroe Islands, Iceland, and Greenland; and in the next century are supposed to have visited the eastern shore of North America.

Ravages.

Normandy.

Other settlements.

10. The Dukes of Normandy, including Rollo and his successors, held their lands, according to the feudal system, as vassals of the king of the Franks. Rollo married a daughter of the Frankish king,

Norman dukes.

* "The northern part of Europe, peopled by a race closely akin to the Low Dutch, and speaking another dialect of the common Teutonic speech, now began to send forth swarms of pirates over all the seas of Europe, who from pirates often grew into conquerors. They were still heathens; and their incursions, both in Britain and on the Continent, must have been a scourge almost as frightful as the settlement of the English had been to the original Britons."—*Freeman's History of the Norman Conquest.*

† "When the new duke was to receive investiture of Normandy from Charles, his pride was startled at the form which required him, in acknowledgment of the favor bestowed on him, to kneel to his liege lord, and kiss his foot. 'My knee shall never bend to mortal,' said the haughty Norman; 'and I will be, on no account, persuaded to kiss the foot of any one whatever.' The French counselors present suggested that this difficulty might be surmounted by Rollo, or Robert, appointing a deputy to kiss, in his name, the foot of Charles. Accordingly, the duke commanded a common soldier to perform the ceremony in his stead. The man showed the small value he attached to the ceremony, by the careless and disrespectful manner in which he performed it. Instead of kneeling to salute the royal foot, he caught it up and performed the ceremony by lifting it to his mouth. In this awkward operation the rude Norman well-nigh overturned the simple king, throne and all, and exposed him *to the laughter of all* around."—*Scott.*

and embraced Christianity; and his followers also intermarried with the people among whom they had settled. The new Norman race that resulted from this union, retaining the daring and adventurous spirit of the old Scandinavian warriors combined with the higher civilization of the French, played a great part in the subsequent history of Europe.

New Norman race.

SECTION II.

THE SAXONS.

11. The Saxons (German *Sachsen*, from *sahs*, a knife), like the Franks, were a confederation of Teutonic or Low German tribes. As early as the third century they made their appearance in northern Germany, from which they passed southward and invaded the Roman Empire. At a later period, in the fifth century, they commenced their incursions into Gaul and Britain.* After the abandonment of the latter province by the Romans, hordes of these barbarous tribes, associated with An'gles and Jūtes from Denmark, rushed with irresistible force upon

Saxons.

Incursions.

* Britain had been in the possession of the Romans nearly four centuries. The latter found the Britons a fierce, hardy, courageous race of warriors; they left them so effeminated by the corrupt civilization of Rome that they were unable to defend themselves from the warlike barbarians of the north; and their appeals for aid to the Roman governers were so frequent and urgent that they were called the "groans of the Britons." The ancient religion of the Britons was called Druidism; and the Druids, or priests, were not only ministers of religion, but judges, physicians, and teachers. They worshiped the sun and moon; and were accustomed to live in caverns or amid the gloom of forests. There are many remains of this curious religion, the most remarkable of which is Stonehenge (Saxon, *raised stones*) on Salisbury Plain. This singular monument originally was a circle (*cromlech*) of thirty stones, fourteen feet high, surmounted with large flat stones. Such circles were called "doom rings," and each contained in the center an altar (*dolmen*), on which victims were sacrificed. Besides these there were "rocking-stones" (*loggans*),—vast masses of granite or sandstone, sometimes weighing more than 500 tons, so nicely poised on another stone as to be moved by the least touch. (*See cut, page 323.*)

the island, and completed the conquest of the whole, except the western portion, now called Wales, into which the remnant of the British population retired.

12. The Britons, being abandoned by their Roman conquerors, were subject to the constant and harassing attacks of the Scots and Picts of the northern districts; and in their distress adopted the desperate measure of inviting the Saxon sea-rovers to come to their aid (449). The Saxons soon drove back the northern invaders, but the

Britons.

STONEHENGE. (See note, page 322.)

unfortunate inhabitants found themselves at the mercy of these pirates, who, with the assistance of constantly increasing hordes of Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, soon possessed themselves of most of the country, driving the Britons into Gaul or the western fastnesses of the island. The northwestern part of France was called Brittany, because it afforded a refuge to the Britons.*

Saxon conquest.

* "The whole southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall, had totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions. The Britons, under the Roman dominion, had made such advances toward arts and civil manners, that they had built twenty-eight considerable cities within their province, besides a great number of villages and country-seats; but the fierce conquerors by whom they were now subdued, threw everything back into ancient barbarity; and those few natives who were not either massacred or expelled their habitations, were reduced to the most abject slavery."—*Hume's History of England.*

13. Thus were formed during the fifth and sixth centuries, by the inroads of these people, seven kingdoms in the central and southern parts of the island of Britain, named collectively the Saxon Hep'tar-chy, consisting of: 1. Kent; 2. Sussex; 3. Wessex; 4. Essex; 5. Northumbria; 6. East Anglia; 7. Mercia. (See Map No. XI.) Various wars arose among these states, and many changes occurred in their respective territories, the final result of which was, that Wessex absorbed all the others; and in 827, its king Egbert became the acknowledged monarch of the whole country, to which he gave the name of England (*Engla-land, i.e.*, Land of the Angles).

Heptarchy.

England.

SECTION III.

THE SARACENS.

14. Sar'a-cens (*Eastern People*) was the name given to that fierce and active race who, proceeding from Arabia in the seventh century, rapidly overran a considerable part of western Asia and the whole of northern Africa, and made a conquest of the kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain; but were stopped in their victorious career by the valor of the Franks, who in southern France turned the tide of Saracenic invasion.

Saracens.

15. They were the followers of Mo-ham'med, or Mah'o-met, an Arabian, born at Mecca in 570.* He professed to be

* The Arabians, up to the time of Mohammed, with the exception of the inhabitants of the cities, were divided into many small tribes, each having its leader, called Sheik or Emir. They dwelt in the deserts, wandering from place to place, and gaining their subsistence in the service of the merchants, by carrying goods across the deserts on the backs of camels, but more often they depended upon the plunder which they took from hostile tribes. They were skilled in the use of the bow, the lance, and the cimeter; and were wonderfully adroit riders. In religion they were worshipers of fire or the stars.

a prophet and the bearer of a new revelation from God, and began to preach at Mecca,* but his doctrines were received with such opposition that he was compelled to flee from the city (622). This event, called in Arabic the *He-gi'ra,* is the epoch which the Mohammedans employ in their chronology. In Medina, where he found a refuge, his doctrines were received with more favor, and after a time gained general credence.

Mohammed.

Hegira.

16. At the first, while his converts were few, he preached a religion of love and peace, particularly exhorting his disciples to lead abstemious and unselfish lives; but as his precepts began to be generally accepted, and when he found himself at the head of a large body of warlike followers, a great change came over him. He became ambitious and bigoted, persuading himself that the power he had acquired was the gift of the Almighty, to enable him to promulgate his doctrines by the sword.† Thus, in seven years after his flight, he was enabled to return to Mecca with a considerable army of roving Arabs, whom he controlled by promises of plunder in this world and everlasting bliss in the next.

Doctrines.

Return to Mecca.

* "Mahomet, or more properly Mohammed, was born at Mecca, four years after the death of Justinian, and two months after the defeat of the Abyssinians, whose victory would have introduced into the Caaba the religion of the Christians. In his early infancy he was deprived of his father, his mother, and his grandfather; his uncles were strong and numerous; and, in the division of the inheritance, the orphan's share was reduced to five camels and an Ethiopian man-servant. At home and abroad, in peace and war, Abu Taleb, the most respectable of his uncles, was the guide and guardian of his youth. In his twenty-fifth year he entered into the service of Cadijah, a rich and noble widow of Mecca, who soon rewarded his fidelity with the gift of her hand and fortune. By this alliance, the son of Abdallah was restored to the station of his ancestors; and the judicious matron was content with his domestic virtues, till, in the fortieth year of his age, he assumed the title of a prophet, and proclaimed the religion of the Koran."—*Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.*

† "Even the miracles of Moses and Jesus have been treated with unbelief. I, therefore, the last of the prophets, am sent with the sword. Let those who promulgate my faith enter into no argument nor discussion, but slay all who refuse obedience to the law. Whoever fights for the true faith, whether he fall or conquer, will assuredly receive a glorious reward."—*Manifesto of Mohammed.*

Soon afterward the Arabians generally embraced his doctrines, accepted his sacred mission, and gave their assent to the cardinal principle of his creed, "There is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet." *

First overtures.

17. Mohammed began the propagation of his faith by sending emissaries to the courts of the neighboring provinces to invite them to embrace the new faith, and become *Moslems*, true believers. Some of these were treated with indifference; but at the court of Syria his proposals were received with disdain, and his embassy was slain. This action caused the first great battle fought by the Saracens, and in it they were victorious. Khaled, afterward so renowned under his title of the "Sword of God," first became prominent here.

Khaled.

First Caliph.

18. Mohammed had scarcely more than commenced his successful career of conquest, when he was stopped by death (632), being succeeded by Abu-Bekr (*ah'boo-bĕkr'*), styled the First Caliph (*successor*). He left a series of writings which he said he had received directly from heaven; and these were collected and compiled by his successor, forming the sacred volume, or Bible, of the Mohammedans. This book is called by them the Koran (Arabic *Alcoran*, The Book); and the Mohammedan religion, *Islam*—submission to the will of God.

Koran.

Conquests.

19. Abu-Bekr prosecuted the conquest of Syria; and his general Khaled defeated the army of Heraclius, and besieged Damascus. Under O'mar, the next caliph, Damascus and Jerusalem were taken (635 and 637), and Syria totally subdued. Egypt also was subjugated, and

* "Mahomet inculcated the belief that there is, was, and ever will be, one only God, the creator of all things; who is single, immutable, omniscient, omnipotent, all-merciful, and eternal. The unity of God was specifically and strongly urged, in contradistinction to the Trinity of the Christians. It was designated, in the profession of faith, by raising one finger, and exclaiming, 'There is no God but God,'—to which was added, 'Mahomet is the prophet of God.' "—*Irving's Mahomet and His Successors.*

the Persians were defeated in a great battle, at Ca-de'sia, on the Tigris. Omar, it is said, during his reign of ten years reduced 36,000 cities and villages, demolished 4000 Christian churches, and erected 1500 Mohammedan temples, or *mosques*. He was succeeded by Oth'man, who completed the conquest of Persia and other eastern countries, extended his dominion in Africa, and published a new edition of the Koran. Cyprus and Rhodes were also taken; and the Saracens at the latter place took possession of the famous brazen Co-los'sus,* or statue of Phœ'bus, the god of the sun. The murder of Othman made Ali (*ah'le*) caliph, who is considered the bravest and most virtuous of the successors of Mohammed (655).

20. During the reign of Ali a great schism occurred which divided the Mohammedans into two sects, called the *Sun'nites* and the *Shi'ites*, the former acknowledging the authority of all the caliphs, while the latter reject all but Ali, whom they regard as the equal of Mohammed. The Shiites also reject the *Sun'nah*, a book of traditions concerning the Prophet, which the Sunnites, or orthodox Mohammedans, receive as sacred. During the reign of Ali, Mo-a-wi'yah usurped the government of Syria, and by the murder of Ali became caliph. He was the first of the dynasty called the Ommiyades (*om-me'yahds*), which lasted till 750.

Schism.

Ommiyades.

21. Moawiyah fixed his capital at Damascus, and, by his *A-mir-al-bahr* (commander of the sea; the same as *admiral*) and his lieutenant Ak'bar, continued the conquest of northern Africa, founding south of Tunis the famous city of Kairwan (*kare-wahn'*). It was the army of this caliph that besieged Constantinople, and was repulsed by means of the Greek fire, so efficiently employed by its defenders (668–675). About forty years afterward (717), Constantinople was again attacked by an army of Saracens, said to number 120,000 men; but,

Moawiyah.

Defeat of the Saracens.

* See page 148.

after a siege of thirteen months, was relieved by the Bulgarians, who fell upon the Saracens and defeated them with immense slaughter.

22. Carthage was taken by the Saracens in 698, and utterly destroyed, after which they encountered no opposition in Africa except from the native Berber tribes, whom they finally subdued (709) and converted. From the union of the Arabic and Berber races, sprung the Moors, so noted in Saracenic history. The conquest of Africa was immediately followed by that of Spain; for Mu'sa, the Saracen general, dispatched his lieutenant Ta'rik across the strait of Gibraltar (*Gib-el-Tarik*—mountain of Tarik) with an army which defeated Roderick,* the last of the Visigothic kings, and thus destroyed their monarchy in Spain, after an existence of nearly three centuries (711).† A remnant of the Gothic nation, however, escaped to the highlands among the Asturian mountains, where they succeeded in maintaining their independence for many centuries.

Conquest of Africa.

Spain.

23. Crossing the Pyrenees, the victorious Saracens were still pressing on in their career of conquest when they were defeated, in a battle that lasted seven days, by the Franks under Charles Martel, who by his valor and skill probably rescued Europe from the Mohammedan yoke (732). His grandson Charlemagne more than fifty years afterward drove them beyond the Ebro, and thus confined them to their dominions in Spain. The Ommiyade dynasty of caliphs was, in the middle of the eighth century (752),

Defeats.

* It is said that the Saracens were invited into Spain by Count Julian, a Gothic noble, in revenge for an injury inflicted upon him by King Roderick.

† "Amidst the general disorder, Roderick started from his car, and mounted Orelia, the fleetest of his steeds; but he escaped from a soldier's death to perish more ignobly in the waters of the Guadalquiver. His diadem, his robes, and his courser were found on the bank; but as the body of the Gothic prince was lost in the waves, the pride and ignorance of the Caliph must have been gratified with some meaner head, which was exposed in triumph before the palace of Damascus." —*Gibbon.*

succeeded by the Ab-bas'i-dēs, descendants of Ab'bas, the uncle of Mohammed; but one of the Ommiyades, escaping to Spain, founded an independent caliphate at Cor'do-va, which lasted 250 years, and was one of the largest and most splendid centers of commerce, literature, and the arts in the world.

Caliphate of Cordova.

24. Al Mansur (*man-soor'*), the second of the Abbasides, removed the capital to the Tigris, founding there the city of Bagdad, which was built out of the ruins of Seleucia and Ctesiphon (762). The most celebrated of the caliphs of Bagdad was Haroun' al Rasch'id (*Aaron the Just*), made familiar both to young and old by the tales of the "Arabian Nights." * During this reign (786–808), and several succeeding reigns, literature and science, particularly astronomy, were carried to a very high degree of perfection both at Cordova and Bagdad, while nearly all Europe was slumbering in the intellectual night of the dark ages.

Bagdad.

Haroun al Raschid.

25. After the reign of Haroun al Raschid, the Saracen Empire became divided by the rebellion and usurpation of the provincial governors, so that, in the beginning of the tenth century, there were no less than seven caliphates, all of whom acknowledged the caliph of Bagdad only as the successor of Mohammed, denying to him any temporal authority over their respective dominions. Of these independent kingdoms the most distinguished was that of the Fat'i-mites, or Mo'ez-zites. The founder of this dynasty was an African Saracen, who, with the emirs of Fez, claimed descent from Fatimah, the daughter of the Prophet. This chief commenced his career in 908, and soon became master of the Mohammedan states of Fez and

Divisions.

Fatimites.

* Haroun al Raschid was contemporaneous with the great Frankish emperor Charlemagne, and exchanged courtesies with him. He sent him various presents, among which was a curious clock that struck the hours; and it is said he offered him the keys of Jerusalem, the Christian monarch being supposed to regard such a possession with the utmost reverence.

Kairwan, which he united into one kingdom (910), which was afterward extended by the conquest of Sicily and several parts of Italy. One of the Fatimite rulers conquered Egypt and built Cairo, which he made his capital (960); and subsequently Palestine was conquered (969). The dynasty of the Fatimites continued in power till 1171, when its last representative was conquered by Sal'a-din.

26. In the eleventh century (1055), Bagdad was taken by the Seljuks; but these fierce barbarians, being believers in Mohammed, acknowledged the caliphs of Bagdad as their superiors. The power, however, of the latter had been greatly diminished; and their dominions scarcely extended beyond the walls of the city. At length, in 1258, during the reign of the grandson of Genghis Khan, Bagdad was taken and sacked by the Mongols; and the caliphate extinguished, after it had existed nearly 500 years. This event is generally regarded as the termination of the Saracen Empire, although, centuries before, its various parts had been but nominally connected.

Bagdad taken.

End of the caliphate.

SECTION IV.

Saracenic Civilization.

27. The rapid and extensive conquests of the Saracens made them acquainted with the greater part of the civilized world, and as they were a highly intellectual and enterprising race, they soon learned to make their knowledge available. This was first shown in their commercial activity. Planting trading stations along the African coast, they soon controlled the whole maritime commerce of the Mediterranean. They restored the ancient caravan routes, constructed highways, opened wells along all the roads leading to every great center, and established caravansaries at convenient points. Bagdad,

Commercial activity.

Routes of travel.

which became the center of the caravan routes, acquired a splendor and opulence that might almost vie with ancient Babylon.

28. Their trade extended to the far east as well as the west. There were caravan routes that led into Siberia, and their traders visited India and even China. They brought gold and negro slaves from the western coast of Africa; and, sailing along the east coast, spread their commerce to Madagascar. They exchanged their linen, silk, and cotton manufactures for the furs of the Russians; and obtained the rich products of Independent Tartary and Persia in exchange for their tapestries and silk stuffs, the cloths of Yemen, the dates and flour of Sana, the balsams of Mecca, and the cutlery and textile fabrics of Damascus (damasks).

Trade.

Articles of exchange.

29. In Spain the Saracenic dominion was equally wealthy and magnificent. Of this Cordova was the capital, renowned for its splendid mosque and sumptuous palace. It was the seat of extensive manufactures of silk, leather, silver-work, and other articles. It contained 600 mosques, nearly 1000 baths, and 16,000 looms for silk-weaving. The old silver-mines of Spain were worked anew by the Moors, and yielded large treasures. In weaving and dyeing they showed a wonderful skill. Granada and other cities also enjoyed great prosperity.

Manufactures in Spain.

Mines.

30. In learning, the Saracens became equally advanced. They founded universities and schools, built observatories, and instituted public libraries and museums. They collected the works of the ancient classic writers, and translated many of them into Arabic, and cultivated with astonishing success almost every branch of science, particularly chemistry, astronomy, and mathematics. They also introduced the arithmetical notation (Arabic) which we now use. The Saracenic architecture is a special order, of which the famous palace of Alhambra, in Granada, is a type.

Learning.

Science.

Chronological Synopsis of Events.

A.D.	Eastern Empire.	Western Europe.	Saracens.
441	Invasion by the Huns.		
449		Saxon invasion of Britain.	
486		The Franks under Clovis invade Gaul.	
493	Italy invaded by the Ostrogoths.		
511		Death of Clovis.	
568	Lombards invade Italy.		
569			Birth of Mohammed.
622	Defeat of the Persians by Heraclius.	Merovingians in France.	The Hegira.
650			Conquest of Persia.
680	Bulgaria founded.		
687		Pepin d'Heristal, Mayor of the Palace.	
711		End of the Visigothic kingdom in Spain.	Conquest of Spain.
732			Defeated by Charles Martel.
752		End of the Merovingian dynasty.	
762			Bagdad founded.
768		Accession of Charlemagne.	
786			Accession of Haroun al Raschid.
800		Charlemagne emperor of the West.	
808			Death of Haroun.
843		Empire of Charlemagne divided.	
865	Russian invasion. — Constantinople attacked.		
884		Empire united under Charles the Fat.	
887		Final division of the empire.	
910			Commencement of the Fatimite dynasty.
912		Normans settle in France.	
987		End of the Carlovingians.	
1055			Bagdad taken by the Seljuks.
1076	Jerusalem taken by the Seljuks.		
1097	Nice taken by the Crusaders.		
1204	Constantinople taken by the Crusaders.		
1258			Bagdad taken by Genghis Khan. — End of the Saracen Empire.
1453	End of the Eastern Empire.		

No. 11.

SAXON ENGLAND
A.D. 900.
Scale of Statute Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
Picts
Firth of Tay
Firth of Forth
Bernicia
NORTHUMBRIA
STRATHCLYDE
Firth of Clyde
Reged
Caerleol
Solway Firth
Cumbria
Mevania
Bebban Burh
Bamborough
Lindisfarne Is
R. Tyne
Egferths-minster
Wearmouth
R. Tees
Scarborough
Stamford
Bridge
Fulford
Eaforwic
York
Leeds
R. Humber
Gainsborough
Lindisfarne
Lincoln
R. Tate
Anglesey
Snowdon
Gwynedd
Derby
Nottingham
Leicester
Stamford
Northfolk
NORTH
MERCIA
EAST
ANGLIA
Wodnesbeorg
R. Severn
DANELAGH
Bury St. Edmunds
Southfolk
Ceredigion
OFFA'S
R. Wye
WALES
Dyfed
Gwent
Morgan
wg
R. Tarret
Glastonbury
R. Thames
ESSEX
MIDDLESEX
LUNDENBYRIC
Ashdune
Wibbandun
Creotanford
Ethandun
Wiltsætas
Surrey
Sumorsætas
Æthelingay
Stonehenge
SUSSEX
KENT
Deal
Boulogne
Andredes-ceaster
Pevensey
Cordiceas-ford
Mount Badon
Dorsætas
Wareham
Cornwall
Dyvnaint
Damnonia
WESSEX
Corfe Castle
R. Stour
Rof Wight
Winton-ceaster
Cissa-ceaster
Cyrnene-ora
Lof Thanet
Pegwell Bay
Cantwara-byric
Scolas Battle
× 1066
W. of Greenwich

CHAPTER IV.

ENGLAND IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

SECTION I.

SAXON PERIOD.

1. THE Saxon period of the history of England includes that of the Heptarchy, about three and a half centuries preceding the consolidation of the Saxon kingdoms by Egbert. To this period of British history belong the stories related of King Arthur, a famous British champion who became renowned for his many victories over the Saxon invaders; also the partial conversion of the Saxons to Christianity, which was effected by St. Au'gus-tine and several monks, commissioned by Pope Gregory the Great to perform this work (597). The barbarous and ferocious manners of the age, although softened, were by no means removed, by the partial Christianization thus effected.

Saxon period.

Events.

2. In the same period, the Danes commenced their invasions. These people were Norsemen who had come from Norway to Denmark, and occupied the lands left uninhabited by the emigration of the Angles and Jutes to Britain. The Danes for a long time continued to harass the kingdom of England, in the reigns of both Egbert

Danes.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XI.

What was the situation of: KENT? SUSSEX? WESSEX? ESSEX? EAST ANGLIA? MERCIA? NORTHUMBRIA? STRATHCLYDE? NORTH WALES? WEST WALES? Senlac? Deal? Stonehenge? Glastonbury? Wareham? Stamford? Leicester? Derby? Nottingham? Lincoln? York? Leeds? Stamford Bridge? Scarborough? The country of the Picts? Anglesey? Isle of Wight? River Thames? Humber? Tees? Tyne? Severn? Wye? Firth of Forth? Tay? Clyde? Solway Firth?

and his successors, the Saxon kings of England, who, except during the reigns of Canute the Dane and his two successors, held the throne a little over two centuries (827–1066).

3. Alfred the Great. The most eminent of these Saxon kings was Alfred the Great, who was the most illustrious monarch of his age, and one of the wisest and most virtuous kings that ever reigned. Though at one time entirely overwhelmed by the Danes, and reduced to such an extremity that he was obliged to seek safety in an obscure part of the country, in the disguise of a peasant, he at last, by his fortitude and address, was enabled to defeat his enemies, and to regain his throne. The Danes being expelled, he restored tranquillity to the country, and endeavored, by judicious measures, to promote the prosperity and civilization of the people. He founded the University of Oxford, improved the laws of the kingdom, and established schools for the education of the people. His reign lasted thirty years (871–901).*

Reign of Alfred.

4. During the next century, the Danes continued their incursions, until the English monarch was compelled to surrender one half of his dominions to the Danish conqueror Can-ute′; and soon afterward the latter obtained full possession of the throne (1017), which he and his two successors held, until the Saxon line was again restored in the person of Edward, called *the Confessor*, on account of his studious habits and pious disposition. This monarch was canonized by the

Canute.

Edward the Confessor.

* "Alfred is the most perfect character in history. He is a singular instance of a prince who has become a hero of romance, who, as such, has had countless imaginary exploits attributed to him, but to whose character romance has done no more than justice, and who appears in exactly the same light in history and in fable. No other man on record has ever so thoroughly united all the virtues both of the ruler and of the private man. In no other man on record were so many virtues disfigured by so little alloy. A saint without superstition, a scholar without ostentation, a warrior all of whose wars were fought in the defense of his country, a conqueror whose laurels were never stained by cruelty, a prince never cast down by adversity, never lifted up to insolence in the day of triumph, there is no other name in history to compare with his."—*Freeman's Norman Conquest.*

Pope, and very much revered by the people, who imputed to him the power of curing the scrofula by the touch of his hand. Hence this disease was called the "king's evil;" and for seven centuries those afflicted with it were, at times, presented to the king to be cured in this way.

5. Edward dying without heirs, the crown was conferred by the clergy and nobles upon Harold, son of Earl Godwin, the most powerful nobleman of the time, whose daughter Edward had married. Harold was also, through his grandmother, a descendant of Sweyn (*swane*), the Danish king. His right to the throne was, however, disputed by his brother Tos'tig, who, having entered into an alliance with the King of Norway, was enabled to raise a large army; but he was defeated by the English forces under Harold, after a severe battle fought near the Der'went River, in the northern part of England (September 25, 1066).

Harold.

Tostig.

6. Three days after this battle, a more powerful competitor for the throne landed on the southeastern shore of England, with a large and finely equipped army. This was William, Duke of Normandy, to whom Edward had bequeathed the throne, and whose claim was sanctioned by the Pope; while Harold, who, it was said, had sacredly promised not to dispute William's claim, was viewed by many as guilty of usurpation and perjury. Harold, notwithstanding his recent conflict with the Norwegians, marched with all the forces he could collect to oppose the Normans. The battle, which was long and bloody, was fought near Hastings,* and resulted in the entire defeat of the Saxons, Harold himself being slain (October 14, 1066).†

Norman conquest.

* On the site of the town now called Battle, in the southeastern part of England. It was fought on the hill of Senlac. (See Map No. XI.)

† "Toward the evening, while still unweariedly sustaining his army with his voice and hand, Harold was struck with an arrow through the left eye into the brain, and fell dead upon the field. His two brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, were also slain, with nearly all the nobles and knights in the battle. The old Anglo-

This ended the Saxon dynasty, and gave the control of the kingdom to William, who, two months afterward, was formally crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey (December 25, 1066).

Anglo-Saxon Civilization.

7. The great council of the nation was called the *Witenagemote* (meeting of the *witan*, or wise men), and was composed of representatives of the nobles and clergy. The churls, or common people, had no voice in it. The kings were chosen by it, and no law could be enacted without its consent. Justice was administered in the *shiremote*, or county court, from which an appeal could be made to the king. The finding of a verdict was assigned to twelve thanes (lowest order of nobles), who thus bore some resemblance to a modern jury. The accused cleared himself by his own oath or those of others, called *compurgators*, who swore to his innocence. Without these, he was subjected to the *ordeal* (great judgment); that is, he was compelled to thrust his arm into boiling water, hold a piece of red-hot iron in his hand, or walk over burning plowshares; and if at the end of three days no signs of injury appeared upon him, his innocence was deemed to be established.

Witenagemote.

Administration of justice.

8. The dwellings of the Anglo-Saxons were constructed of wood, having, instead of a chimney, an aperture in the roof. The windows were of lattice-work, but sometimes were covered with a linen blind; in the houses of the rich they were often glazed. The floors were covered with rushes, and the walls often hung with rich tapestry, embroidered with gold or colored thread, the women

Dwellings.

Saxon heroism, worthy of a better fate, set in that dark eclipse; the battle-ax no longer availed against the Norman spear. Certain it is, however, that there was neither rout nor flight, so great was the despairing energy with which the English fought. King Harold's army was exterminated but not vanquished, and England lay paralyzed at the foot of the conqueror."—*Roscoe's Lives of the Kings of England.*

of this period being skilled in needlework. The furniture was very rude and simple, stools, benches, and settees being used in place of chairs; and these were made of wood, often curiously carved. Many of the vessels employed in eating and drinking were of silver and gold beautifully wrought. Drinking-horns supplied the place of glass vessels.

Furniture.

9. The Anglo-Saxons were hospitable, and fond of feasting and merriment; and at their banquets, the harp was passed around, that each, in turn, might contribute by his skill to the entertainment. Their amusements were active and exciting. Among the higher classes, hunting and hawking were favorite sports; while the churl delighted in bear-baiting, in the feasts of jugglers and tumblers, and in the songs of the gleeman, or minstrel. Backgammon, chess, and dice were also resorted to for more quiet pastime. The ladies were much occupied in spinning; hence the name *spinster* came to be applied to a young unmarried woman.

Social customs.

10. Little was done after Alfred's reign to encourage learning and science, the irruptions of the Danes preventing any progressive efforts to cultivate the arts of peace. There were no means of diffusing knowledge. The monasteries were almost the only schools; and in these a very few persons received instruction in Greek, Latin, theology, and astronomy; also in some of the fine arts, the monks being often skilled in painting, music, and sculpture. They also spent much of their time in copying and illuminating books on vellum or parchment, which, being executed with so much labor, were very costly, a considerable fortune being requisite to obtain a few volumes.

Learning and science.

11. The foreign commerce of England during this period was considerable, London being the great emporium of the nation. Wool was the chief article of export, and was received back from the continent in fabrics

Commerce.

of various kinds. Mints were established in some of the cities and towns, and many of the Anglo-Saxon coins still preserved exhibit remarkable skill.

SECTION II.

THE NORMAN PERIOD.

12. William I., surnamed the *Conqueror*, was a descendant of the famous Duke Rollo, to whom Charles the Simple had ceded Normandy about 150 years previously. He was not only a brave and skillful general, but an able statesman; and, after subduing all the Anglo-Saxon leaders who opposed his rule, he, by severe but judicious regulations, firmly established the government, and effectually protected the country from foreign invasions. The Saxon population was, however, reduced to a condition of abject bondage to the great Norman barons, among whom most of the lands were divided as a reward for their services, according to the usages of the feudal system. The laws of Edward the Confessor were not, however, abolished; and some of the Saxon nobles sat in council with the Norman counts.

Character.

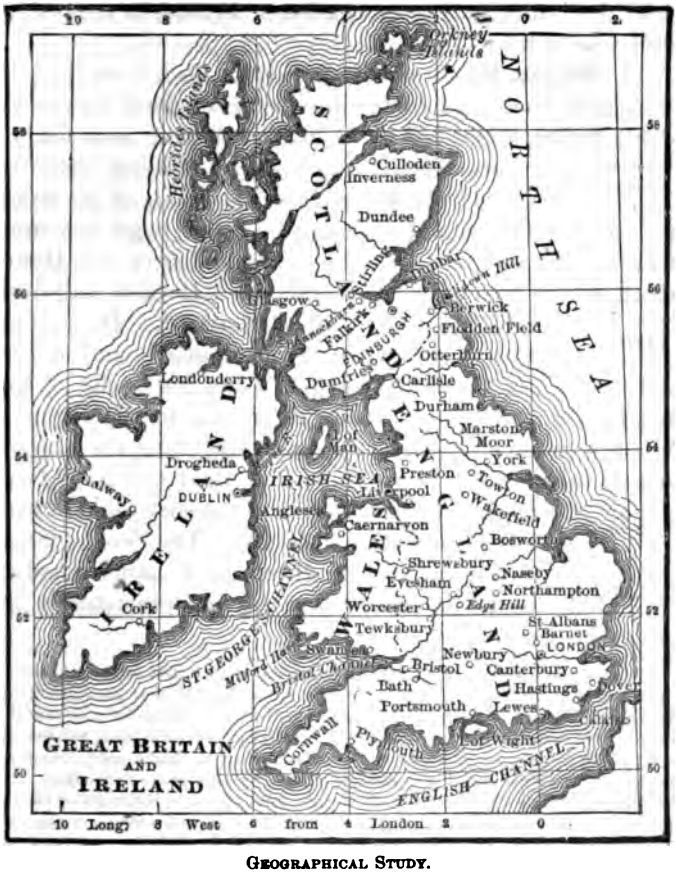
Measures.

13. William instituted the custom of ringing the *curfew-bell* in the evening, as a signal that the people should extinguish their lamps and fires, either to prevent conflagrations or secret assemblies of those who were hostile to his government.* One of his most useful acts

Chief events.

* "William, knowing how ill the English stood affected to him, resolved to take all possible measures to screen himself from their resentment; for that purpose he took two precautions which were equally insupportable to them. The first was to take away their arms, the second to forbid them any lights in their houses after eight o'clock, at which hour a bell was rung to warn them to put out their fire and candle, under the penalty of a great fine for every offense."—*Rapin's History of England.*

was to cause the compilation of the *Domesday Book*, which was a register of all the estates in the kingdom. Hunting was his favorite amusement; and in order to make a new forest near his residence, he laid waste a tract of country



GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What is the situation of: **ENGLAND? WALES? SCOTLAND? IRELAND? London? Dover? Hastings? Portsmouth? Canterbury? Cornwall? York? Carlisle? Otterburn? Flodden Field? Edinburgh? Glasgow? Inverness? Dublin? St. Albans? Barnet? Wakefield? Towton? Isle of Wight?**

extending thirty miles, driving out the inhabitants, demolishing houses and even churches, but making no compensation for the injury. To kill game in any of the forests was made a crime of greater enormity than murder.* He died during an invasion of France, in the twenty-third year of his reign (1087).

Death.

14. William II., surnamed *Rufus*, the *Red*, from the color of his hair, succeeded to the throne of England, by the will of his father, while his elder brother Robert assumed the government of Normandy. William inherited the courage and much of the ability of his father, but was more cruel and unprincipled. His reign was much disturbed by quarrels with his brothers Robert and Henry, which caused him to invade Normandy. He also waged war with Malcolm, king of Scotland. During this period the First Crusade occurred; and Robert, wishing to join it, mortgaged to William his duchy of Normandy (1095), the latter raising the money to pay for it by forced levies upon his subjects, even compelling the convents to melt their plate in order to furnish their quota. After a reign of thirteen years, he was shot while hunting in the New Forest (1100). The people viewed this as a just retribution; for where the Conqueror had destroyed the homes of the Saxons, his son prematurely and miserably perished.†

Character.

Events.

Death.

* "'Stark he was,' says the English chronicler, 'to men that withstood him. So harsh and cruel was he that none dared resist his will. Earls that did aught against his bidding he cast into bonds, bishops he stripped of their bishoprics, abbots of their abbacies. He spared not his own brother; first he was in the land, but the king cast him into bondage. If a man would live and hold his lands, need it were that he followed the king's will.' But stern as he was, he gave peace to the land. Even amid the sufferings which necessarily sprang from the circumstances of the Conquest itself, from the erection of castles, or the inclosure of forests, or the exactions which built up the great Hoard at Winchester, Englishmen were unable to forget 'the good peace he made in the land, so that a man might fare over his realm with a bosom full of gold.'"—*Green's History of the English People.*

† "It was almost night, when a poor charcoal-burner, passing through the New Forest with his cart, came upon the solitary body of a dead man, shot with an arrow in the breast, and still bleeding. He got it into his cart. It was the body of

15. Henry I. (surnamed *Beauclerk*, the *Scholar*), the younger brother of William II., succeeded him; Robert, the elder brother, being absent in the Holy Land. The latter, on his return, again received Normandy; but some time afterward, war arising between the brothers, Robert was made prisoner, sent to England, and confined in a castle in Wales till his death. The government of Henry was characterized by severity; and so strict and impartial was he in administering the laws, that he was styled the "Lion of Justice." He married Matilda, daughter of the king of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling, a prince of the old Saxon line. Matilda was much beloved by the people, who called her Maud the Good. Henry's private life was, however, very immoral; and he was so deceitful and treacherous that even his greatest favorites distrusted him. The latter part of his life was saddened by the loss of his only son, who was drowned on his passage from Normandy; after which event, it is said, Henry was never seen to smile.

Robert.

Government.

Matilda.

Private life.

16. Stephen, a nephew of Henry, succeeded him, although it had been his cherished wish that his daughter Matilda should have the throne. This princess, whose first husband was the emperor of Germany, and who afterward married Geoffrey Plan-tag'e-net, Earl of Anjou, raised an army, and having defeated Stephen and made him a prisoner, was declared queen of England (1141). She, however, soon disgusted all her English friends and supporters by her despotic and arrogant behavior; and Stephen was enabled to regain the throne, Matilda being compelled to flee.

Matilda.

the king. Shaken and tumbled, with its red beard all whitened with lime and clotted with blood, it was driven in the cart by the charcoal-burner next day to Winchester Cathedral, where it was received and buried. By whose hand the Red King really fell, and whether that hand dispatched the arrow to his breast by accident or design, is known only to God."—*Dickens.*

17. Some years after this, Henry Plantagenet, her son, made another effort to dethrone Stephen, but was finally reconciled to the king, being adopted by him as his son and successor; soon after which, on the death of Stephen, he became king (1154). During the reign of Stephen, on account of the weakness of the government, the country suffered greatly from the violence and rapacity of the feudal barons, each of whom occupied a fortified castle, from which, at the head of his band of mercenary ruffians, he sallied forth day and night to plunder and oppress the inhabitants. This reign terminates the Norman period.

Henry.

Condition of the country.

NORMAN CIVILIZATION.—THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

18. The Norman conquest of England wrought many great changes in the social as well as the political condition of the people. Among these the establishment of the *Feudal System* was the most important. This was a system by which, during the period from the ninth to the thirteenth century, social and political relations, including the rights of landed property, were regulated in nearly all the countries of Europe. A feudal proprietor was one who held his lands from another, on condition of certain services which he, as a *vassal*, was bound to perform for the other, as his *suzerain*, or *superior*.

Feudal system.

19. This peculiar relation was established for the purpose of obtaining and preserving military strength; and was admirably adapted to that end. Thus, when the king needed an army he summoned his barons, who in like manner called upon their vassals, and they at once made a similar demand upon their dependents; so that, with wonderful promptitude, the whole force of the nation was brought into the field. With the exception of the duty of military service to *their superiors*, the vassals of a king practically were invested

Object of the system.

Vassals.

with sovereign power within their own dominions, having vassals in various degrees beneath them; and living in their fortified castles, often by means of pillage, while the peasantry were bound as serfs, or slaves, to the soil.

20. These feudal castles soon became a striking feature in England and other parts of western Europe, their whole appearance indicating that the only objects of their construction were strength and security. They were surrounded by walls often more than twelve feet high, within which was a lofty tower called the *donjon*, or *keep*, whose massive walls, pierced with small windows or loop-holes, defied the fiercest assault. Here the baron lived, and here was stored the property of the castle. Under it was a gloomy dungeon, in which those who had offended its haughty master were thrust, and often left to starve. The ruins of some of these castles still exist.

Feudal castles.

A Feudal Castle.

21. The feudal nobles and gentlemen fought on horseback, and were protected by a close-fitting armor of steel, often ornamented with gold and silver. Their principal weapons of offense were long lances, with which they rode fiercely against each other; and clubs, maces, or swords for hand-to-hand conflicts, when their lances were broken, or when the combatants became unhorsed. The common soldiers fought on foot, were unprovided with protective armor, and used bows and arrows—either long-bows or cross-bows. The Normans were skilled in the use of every species of arms, but particularly in the cross-bow; and, after the Norman invasion, the English became the most skillful archers in the world.

Modes of combat.

the lands which they held from their lords, unless permitted to leave them. Next below these were the *serfs*, who were in all respects bondsmen, being attached to the soil, and subject to the will of their masters. The number of these registered in Domesday Book was 25,000.

Serfs.

23. The dress of the Normans was, in many respects, peculiar. A short cloak, often richly furred

the doublet by strings, called *points*, and a velvet bonnet, completed the costume. The Norman ladies wore a loose wide-sleeved robe reaching to the ground, and covering a kirtle or under-gown of silk. Other modes of costume were peculiar to various characters. Thus the *minstrel* was distinguished by his harp strung on his shoulder, a plate of silver on his arm, and a chain around his neck bearing the tuning-key; the fool, or jester, by his cap and bells, and his party-colored dress; the palmer, or pilgrim, by his sandals, the scallop-shells bordering his hat, and his iron-shod staff. The Saxon serf was clothed in untanned hide, sandals of hog-skin, and leather hose, and wore a collar of brass engraved with his master's name.

Minstrel.

Dress of the serf.

24. Learning at this period was almost exclusively confined to the cloister, the monks and priests being the only scholars. Every monastery had its *writing-room*, where the copying of books was constantly carried on by the monks. The most noted among the English writers of this time were William of Malmsbury, Geoffrey of Monmouth, and Henry of Huntingdon. These were the authors of several interesting chronicles.

Learning.

Chivalry or Knighthood.

25. Chivalry or knighthood, like feudalism, was an institution peculiar to this age, and exerted a powerful influence upon the social customs of the Normans. While the feudal system constituted the basis of the political system both of England and France at this time, chivalry controlled the moral and social character of the people. Though pertaining to the general history of Europe, we give a sketch of it here, because of its prominence among the Normans, both in Normandy and in the conquered Anglo-Saxon kingdom.

Influence.

26. It was a singular combination of religion, milit valor, and gallantry; and for several centuries contin to exercise a powerful influence upon the m ners, customs, and opinions of all classes. though its origin can be faintly discerned in the instituti and practices of the German and Gothic nations, its full development was not reached till the eleventh or twelfth century, being rapidly matured by the Crusades, from which it received a strong religious character. Those destined for knighthood received, from their earliest years, a peculiar training. The first degree was that of *page* (called sometimes *child* or *varlet*): after the age of fourteen, the page might be made an *esquire*, and was allowed to bear arms. He was then kept in constant service, waiting upon the master and mistress of the castle, and acquiring habits of perfect obedience and courtesy. Every care was taken to impress indelibly upon his mind a love of chivalry; that is, a devotion to feats of arms in behalf of weak and oppressed, or in vindication of religion, and of honor and virtue of the female sex.*

Development.

Training for knighthood.

A Knight in Complete Armo

* "The young man, the esquire, who aspired to the title of knight, was stripped of his clothes and placed in a bath, which was symbolical of purifica On leaving the bath he was clothed in a white tunic, symbolical of purity; a robe, symbolical of the blood he was bound to shed in the service of the faith; black close-fitting coat, of the death which awaited him as well as all men."

27. By means of this training, he was prepared to receive his golden spurs, and to take the vows of a *knight*. The candidate for this honor was obliged, the night before receiving it, to hold his vigil; that is, he kept silent watch within some gloomy chapel over the arms which he was about to assume. The chief of these was a lance, besides which he had a two-handed sword, the "dagger of mercy," and sometimes a battle-ax or mace. He was clad from head to foot in armor, consisting of plates of metal riveted together, and worn over a dress of soft leather. His helmet bore a crest, ornamented by favors bestowed by the lady of his knightly devotion, and on his triangular shield was a coat of arms. When the sword and spurs were bound upon him, he was struck on the cheek or shoulder, this being the last personal affront which he was to receive unavenged. He then took a solemn oath to protect the distressed, maintain right against might, and never, by word or deed, to disgrace himself as a knight or a Christian.*

Mode of admission.

purified and clothed, the candidate observed for four-and-twenty hours a strict fast. When evening came he entered the church and there passed the night in prayer. Next day his first act was confession, after which the priest gave him communion; and then he attended a mass of the Holy Spirit and listened to a sermon touching the duties of knights. The sermon over, the candidate advanced to the altar with the knight's sword hanging from his neck. This the priest took off, blessed, and replaced upon his neck. The candidate then went and knelt before the lord who was to arm him. . . . Then drew near knights and sometimes ladies to reclothe the candidate in all his new array. He was then called *adubbed* (that is, adopted). The lord rose up, went to him and gave him three blows with the flat of the sword on the shoulder or nape of the neck, and sometimes a slap with the palm of the hand on the cheek, saying, 'In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George, I make thee knight.'"—*Guizot's History of Civilization.*

* "No man could approach the idea of chivalry or rank himself among gentlemen and men of honor who was not ready to contend, when occasion arose, against any odds, and thus to encounter death rather than yield one inch from his post. He must feel himself absolutely free from the stain of a single lie, or even of an equivocation. He must be ever ready to help the weak and the distressed, whether they be so by nature, as in the case of women and children, or by circumstances, as in the case of men overpowered by numbers. He must with his heart, and not with mere eye-service, obey God and the king, or even such other authority as he voluntarily pledged himself to obey. A knight who violated any of these conditions, even if he escaped detection at the hands of his fellows, felt himself degraded and untrue to the oath taken before God, and the obligation which he had bound himself to fulfill."—*Mahaffy's Social Life, etc. etc.*

28. The display of chivalry was not confined to the battle-field, but found a frequent occasion in the tournament or joust—the highest species of amusement of this period. This was a fierce personal contest held in an inclosed space, called the *lists*, in galleries around which sat the nobles and ladies to witness the sport, the outside being thronged with eager spectators from the lower

Tournament.

KNIGHT IN THE LISTS.*

orders. At the sound of the trumpet, the combatants, covered with steel and known only by their emblazoned shields, dashed at full gallop from the opposite ends of the lists; and meeting in the center with a terrific shock, one or the other was generally unhorsed, their lances often being shivered to pieces, and the vanquished thrown bruised and bleeding to the ground. The victor was usually

Combat.

* The knight is here seen in his *hauberk*, or coat of mail. A sort of overcoat was sometimes worn over this in warm countries to mitigate the heat of the sun on metal armor. This was made of cloth or silk stuff, embroidered in gold and silver.

rewarded by receiving his horse and armor, and sometimes by the privilege of naming some lady, who, with the title of Queen of Love, presided over the remainder of the tournament. In other cases, he received a scarf, ribbon, or other favor from the lady in whose honor the tournament was held.*

29. These combats were not only used for sport, but were resorted to in order to discover the guilty; it being the prevailing belief that Providence would interpose, in all such cases, for the protection of the innocent. In this conviction, those who were charged with crime were challenged by their accusers, and were compelled to abide the issue of a personal combat in the lists. This appeal of the Normans to the justice of Heaven closely resembled the *ordeal* of the Saxons; and upon it was based the practice of the *duel* in more modern times.

Judicial combat.

30. The customs and practices of chivalry varied in different countries, being modified by the character and circumstances of the people. Being a Christian institution, it was a very general object to fight against the infidel, and thus uphold, as was conceived, the cause of true religion. Hence, great military orders of knighthood were formed during the Crusades, or expeditions in protection of the Holy Land, of which we shall speak hereafter. *Knight-errantry* was the practice assumed by certain knights in wandering about in quest of persons in distress, the rescue of whom conferred special glory upon the champion.†

Military orders.

Knight-errantry.

* The tournament differed from the joust principally in the greater number of the combatants. Both were held in the open air, the tournament lasting several days. Outside the lists were pitched the tents of the knights, decorated with their coats of arms, while immediately surrounding the lists, seats were arranged for spectators, who attended in large numbers. Special canopies of silk and other rich stuffs were erected for the ladies, who thronged to the spectacle arrayed in their costliest dresses. At the close of the performance the victorious knights were publicly crowned by the ladies of their choice.

† The knight-errant traveled about from tournament to tournament, everywhere receiving hospitable entertainment. Out of chivalry sprang the *romance*, in which

SECTION III.

The Plantagenets.

31. Henry II., the first of the Plantagenets,* had married Eleanor, duchess of Guienne (*ghe-en'*), the divorced queen of Louis VII., king of France; and having inherited Anjou from his father, and Maine and Normandy from his mother, at his accession he became the ruler not only of England but of the greater part of France. His first acts were to reduce the refractory nobles to obedience; and, dispossessing them of their strongholds, to compel them to discontinue their lawless violence and pillage. His next object was to diminish the powers and privileges of the clergy, who were, by the institutions of William the Conqueror, amenable only to the ecclesiastical courts, by which, if found guilty, they were delivered up to the secular power for punishment.

Dominions.

Acts.

Dominions of the Angevins.

we find the deeds of such heroes as Arthur and Charlemagne related and embellished. These were sung by the *trouvères* of Normandy, the *troubadours* of Provence, and the *minnesingers* of Germany. (See page 434.)

* *Plantagenet* means, in French, *broom-plant;* and was given to this family, it is said, because one of their ancestors had done penance by scourging himself with twigs of that plant. Henry being Duke of Anjou, he and his successors, down to and including John, are called the *Angevins.* They possessed a large part of France. (See Map.)

32. In this undertaking he met with determined opposition from Thomas à Becket, a man of great talent and fearless courage, who, holding the highest office in the Church (that of Archbishop of Can'ter-bu-ry), considered it his duty to defend the authority and privileges of his order, notwithstanding he had been elevated to this great dignity by the friendship and partiality of Henry II. At a grand council held at Clarendon (1164), the king presented sixteen propositions, called the "Constitutions of Clarendon, one of which was that clergymen accused of any crime should be tried by the civil courts; while the others were designed to define and regulate the ecclesiastical authority, and make it subservient to the civil power. To these propositions Becket, by the request of the Pope, reluctantly gave his assent; but afterward, being charged with evading them, he was condemned by a council specially called by the king to pass judgment upon him.

Thomas a Becket.

Constitutions of Clarendon.

33. He then secretly departed from England, and took refuge with the king of France, by whom, as well as by the Pope, he was encouraged and sustained. Henry at last becoming reconciled to him, he returned to England and resumed his high office. But he again opposed the royal authority; and the king was at last provoked into exclaiming, "Is there no one of my subjects who will rid me of this insolent priest?" Four knights, construing this as a command, immediately proceeded to the residence of the prelate, and, pursuing him into the cathedral, barbarously slew him before the altar (1170).

Murder of Becket.

34. Henry was thrown into the greatest consternation on hearing of this event. He expressed the deepest sorrow for the words he had hastily uttered, and evinced the sincerity of his repentance by acts of the severest penance, consenting to go as a pilgrim to the tomb of the murdered prelate, now canonized as a

Henry's penance.

saint and martyr, and for miles of the way walked barefoot over the flinty road, marking his steps with blood. Independently of its atrocity, nothing could have been more disastrous to the king's cause than the murder of Becket; for the Church party gained more by the death of their champion than all his best efforts could have won for them if he had lived, talented and determined as he was; and Henry only obtained pardon from the Roman pontiff on condition that he would submit entirely to the wishes and injunctions of the holy See.

Effect of Becket's death.

35. One of the most important events of this reign was the conquest of Ireland, which Henry completed in 1172. Ireland, anciently called *Hibernia*, was peopled by a race similar to the Britons, but little is known of them before the fourth century.* Each province had its separate king, but was dependent upon the monarch who held his court at Tara.† In the fifth century the people were converted to Christianity, chiefly through the efforts of the renowned St. Patrick. From the sixth to the twelfth century, Ireland became famous for its progress in literature and art, and sent forth many learned men and missionaries from the monasteries which had been established.‡ For three centuries it was much harassed by

Ireland.

History.

* "Many years before Christ, a race of men inhabited Ireland, exactly identical with its present population, yet very superior to it in point of material well-being; a people acquainted with the use of the precious metals, with the manufacture of fine tissues, fond of music and song, enjoying its literature and books; often disturbed, it is true, by feuds and contentions, but, on the whole, living happily under the patriarchal rule of the clan system."—*Thebaud's Irish Races.*

† "The ancient Hall or Court of Tara, in which, for so many centuries, the Triennial Councils of the nation had been held, saw for the last time (A.D. 554) her kings and nobles assembled within its precincts. Some fugitive criminal, who had fled for sanctuary to the monastery of St. Ruan, having been dragged forcibly from thence to Tara, and there put to death, the holy abbot and his monks cried aloud against the sacrilegious violation; and pronounced a curse upon its walls. 'From that day,' says the annalist, no king ever sat again at Tara.'"—*Moore's History of Ireland.*

‡ "In order to convey to the reader any adequate notion of the apostolical *labors of that* crowd of learned missionaries whom Ireland sent forth in the course

the Northmen or Danes; but in 1014 the latter were utterly defeated in a great battle fought at Clon'tarf, near Dublin.

36. Some years before the death of Becket, Henry obtained permission of the Pope to subdue the island; but it was not until 1169 that an actual invasion was made. One of the five subordinate kings having been expelled from his province, and having taken refuge in England, succeeded in enlisting a force from the Anglo-Norman nobles and adventurers, with which he regained his kingdom (1170). The English then so rapidly prosecuted the conquest of the country, that the next year Henry went there, and, having received the submission of most of the native chiefs, committed the government of the island to a viceroy whom he appointed.

Conquest of Ireland.

37. The last sixteen years of Henry's life were embittered by family dissensions, his three oldest sons combining with Louis, king of France, to deprive him of his throne. At the same time his French dominions were threatened by a revolt, and the northern part of England was invaded by the king of Scotland. Henry, however, triumphed over all his enemies. But these troubles were no sooner pacified than similar family discords broke out, his sons being encouraged in their disobedience and unnatural hostility by Queen Eleanor, their mother, who had become

Family troubles.

of this [the sixth] century to all parts of Europe, it would be necessary to transport him to the scenes of their respective missions; to point out the difficulties they had to encounter, and the admirable patience and courage with which they surmounted them; to show how inestimable was the service they rendered, during that dark period, by keeping the dying embers of learning awake, and how gratefully their names are enshrined in the records of foreign lands, though but faintly, if at all, remembered in their own. It was, indeed, then, as it has been ever since, the peculiar fate of Ireland that, both in talent and in the fame that honorably rewards it, her sons prospered far more triumphantly abroad than at home; for while, of the many who confined their labors to their native land, but few have left those remembrances behind which constitute fame, those who carried the light of their talent and zeal to other lands not only founded a lasting name for themselves, but made their country also a partaker of their renown, winning for her that noble title of the Island of the Holy and the Learned, which throughout the night that overhung all the rest of Europe she so long and proudly wore."—Moore.

enraged against the king for his licentiousness, and particularly on account of his attachment to Rosamond Clifford, styled in the ballads of the time the "Fair Rosamond." Eleanor, attempting to flee the kingdom, was arrested and kept in close confinement. The king's eldest son, Henry, died of a fever; his second son, Geoffrey (*jef're*), was killed in a tournament in France; and Richard, the third son, with John, the fourth son, joined the king of France in a war against England, so that Henry was compelled to submit to a very humiliating treaty of peace.

38. Henry's death occurred a short time afterward (1189).* He was, undoubtedly, a very able monarch, and did much to establish the royal authority in opposition to the violence of the feudal barons, and to the exorbitant claims and privileges of the clergy. He was a patron of learning and art, and many Gothic edifices of great splendor were erected during his reign. The simple arts of civilized life also made considerable progress during the same period. Henry was succeeded by Richard, who was afterward styled, on account of his martial courage, *Cœur de Lion* (*kyur duh le-ong*), the *Lion-hearted.*

Character.

39. Richard I. This monarch, being ambitious of military glory, embarked in the Third Crusade, and gained several important victories in the Holy Land over the renowned Saladin. On his return he was arrested by the duke of Austria, whom he had offended in Palestine, and, by order of Henry VI., emperor of Germany, was confined

Military career.

* "When the French ambassadors were ushered into his presence, sick and bedridden as he was, and he inquired the name of Richard's supporters (amnesty for whom was a condition of the treaty), the first name on the list was that of his beloved John. On hearing his name he was seized with a sort of convulsive movement; he sat up in bed, and gazing around with a searching and haggard look, he exclaimed, 'Can it be true that John, my heart, the son of my choice, he whom I have doted on more than all the rest, and my love for whom has brought on me all my woes, has fallen away from me?' They replied that it was even so; that nothing could be more true. 'Well, then,' he said, falling back on his bed, and turning his face to the wall, 'henceforward let all go on as it may; I no longer care for myself or for the world.'"—*Michelet.*

in a dungeon, until his subjects paid a large sum of money for his deliverance (1194). During his absence, Philip, king of France, had seduced John, Richard's brother, from his allegiance; and both had plotted for the destruction of Richard, with the design of obtaining possession of his dominions; but this scheme was thwarted by the king's return. The rest of Richard's reign was occupied in contention with Philip; and after much petty and indecisive war, he was mortally wounded in an attack upon a castle in France, held by a rebellious vassal (1199).

Philip and John.

40. The character of this monarch is one of the most romantic to be found in history, and displays a love of adventure, a military daring, and a strength and skill in feats of arms, unsurpassed in ancient or modern times. His people, oppressed by the taxes which were ruthlessly levied to carry out his useless projects, were yet proud of his fame, though he accomplished nothing for their benefit, nor advanced in any respect the prosperity of the country. He, indeed, spent but fourteen months in his kingdom during the ten years of his reign.

Character of Richard.

41. John (*Lackland*), the brother of Richard, succeeded him, with the consent of the people, although Arthur, Geoffrey's son, was the rightful heir. This young prince, having fallen into the power of his uncle, was imprisoned, and, it is said, cruelly murdered by him. Philip, king of France, summoned John, his vassal, as Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, to answer for this offense before a court of peers; but he refused to obey the summons, and was accordingly branded as a murderer, and adjudged to lose nearly all his French territories, which in a few years Philip succeeded in conquering, and annexed them to his own dominions. John was called *Lackland,* because his father left him no possessions.

Prince Arthur.

Loss of French territory.

42. The Pope (Innocent III.) having caused Stephen Langton, a man of great talent and unblemished character,

to be elected Archbishop of Canterbury, John refused to give his consent; whereupon Innocent placed the kingdom under an interdict, in consequence of which the churches were closed, the dead were refused Christian burial, and all other religious offices ceased. The king, still resisting, was formally excommunicated by Pope Innocent, his people were absolved from their allegiance to him, and a solemn injunction was placed upon Philip of France to take possession of the kingdom. John at last submitted, and solemnly surrendered his dominions to the Pope, promising to hold them as his obedient vassal, and to pay to him an annual tribute (1213). Philip, attempting to carry out his design of conquering England, sustained a great disaster in the loss of his fleet, which was attacked by the English and destroyed. This was the first naval action of importance between the English and French.

Interdict.

Defeat of Philip.

43. John's next contest was with the barons, who, under the leadership of Langton, determined to compel his assent to a series of propositions designed to diminish the royal prerogatives and secure the liberties of the subjects by established principles. This John steadily refused, until a large army had been raised by the barons, and the city of London taken; when he finally submitted, and signed the famous **Magna Charta** (the Great Charter) at Run-ny-mede' (June 15, 1215).* One of the most important articles of this instrument was that "no delay should take place in doing justice to every one; and no freeman should be taken or imprisoned, dispossessed of his free tenement, outlawed, or ban-

Contest with the barons.

Magna Charta.

* "This Holy Land of English liberty is about half way from Odiham to London, and it is a grassy plain, of about one hundred and sixty acres, on the south bank of the Thames, between Staines and Windsor. Various derivations are given for the name; that of the antiquary Leland affirms it to have been so called from the Saxon word *Rune*, or council, and to mean the Council Meadow, having been used in the old Saxon times as a place of assembly. No column or memorial marks the spot where the primary triumph of the English constitution was achieved."—*Creasy's Rise and Progress of the English Constitution.*

ished, ***unless by the legal judgment of his peers.***" This famous charter, although granted to the nobles only, protected the rights of all, and is justly regarded as the palladium of English liberty.*

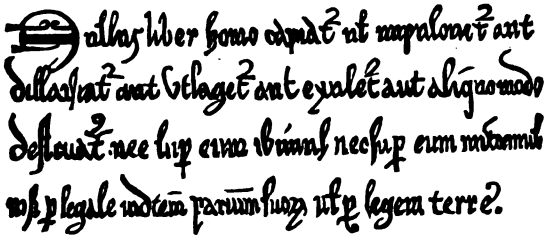
44. John attempted afterward to resist the execution of this instrument, and levied an army of foreign mercenaries, by means of which he perpetrated the most atrocious cruelties, and compelled the authors and supporters of Magna Charta to flee the country. In the midst of the troubles which this excited, his death fortunately occurred, and thus saved the people from the disaster and misery of a prolonged civil war (1216). The character of John was despicable; cruelty, treachery, and cowardice being its prominent

John's resistance.

Death and character.

* "How is it possible that at least a third of the provisions of the Charter should have related to promises and guaranties made in behalf of the people, if the aristocracy had only aimed at obtaining that which would benefit themselves? We have only to read the Great Charter in order to be convinced that the rights of all three orders of the nation (clergy, nobles, and common people) are equally respected and promoted."—*Guizot.*

The following is a paragraph in Magna Charta, as written:



The same in Roman letters.

Nullus liber homo capiatur, vel imprisonetur, aut dissaisiatur, aut utlagetur, aut exuletur, aut aliquo modo destruatur; nec super eum ibimus, nec super eum mittemus, nisi per legale judicium parium suorum, vel per legem terrae.

Translation.

No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or disseised, or outlawed, or banished, or any ways destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, nor will we send upon him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

traits, unrelieved by a single redeeming virtue. He was succeeded by his son Henry, then only nine years old.

45. Henry III. During the first part of this reign, the country was governed by the guardians of the young king, and was much disturbed by wars with France. After attaining the age of majority, Henry had frequent disputes with the barons, who compelled him to confirm the Great Charter in the most solemn manner. They nevertheless continued to oppose the royal authority, in consequence of the unwise exactions of Henry, and his submission to the influence of foreigners, by whom the offices both of church and state were filled.

First events.

46. Through the efforts of Simon de Mont'fort, Earl of Leicester (*les'ter*), twenty-four barons were appointed by the great council to regulate the kingdom; and to this arrangement the king gave his assent (1258). A quarrel afterward arising between the nobles and the royalists, civil war ensued; and the king's forces were defeated at Lew'es, and he and his son, Prince Edward, were taken prisoners (1264). This placed the government mainly under the control of Leicester, who, in order to strengthen his influence, summoned a council (now styled a *parliament*), and gave seats in it not only to the barons and knights, but to the *representatives of the boroughs, or towns* (1265). This is considered the first institution of the House of Commons—the most important branch of the English legislature.

Civil war.

Parliament.

47. Prince Edward, having escaped from the confinement in which he had been kept by Leicester, raised an army; and, in the battle of Eves'ham, entirely defeated the forces of Leicester, who, with his eldest son, was among the slain (1265).* This placed Henry

Defeat of Leicester.

* "The Earl moved to a place on the Avon, called Evesham, and with great gladness saw his own banners coming over the hills from Kenilworth. These, however, *turned out to* be the captured standards of his son; and when he looked to other

again on the throne; and Prince Edward having by prudent measures restored general tranquillity, by infusing a wiser and more popular spirit in the government, went on a crusade to the Holy Land. Before his return, his father died (1272), after the exceedingly long reign of fifty-six years. Henry was mild and pacific in his disposition, but possessed neither the talents nor force of character required to cope successfully with the difficulties of so disturbed a period. England, however, increased in wealth and influence during this reign, and widely extended her commercial relations with other countries.

Character of Henry.

48. Edward I. The first important event of this reign was the conquest of Wales, which Edward undertook because Llew-el'lyn, prince of that country, refused to do him the homage which he owed as a vassal. The conquest was completed in 1283; Llewellyn being defeated and slain, and the principality of Wales conferred upon the king's eldest son, called the "Prince of Wales"—a title ever afterward borne by the eldest son of the English sovereign. The wars with Scotland occupy nearly all the rest of this reign. Alexander III., king of that country, having died without a male heir, several competitors arose for the throne, the most noted of whom were John Ba'li-ol and Robert Bruce, the former being the *grandson* of a *second* daughter, and the latter a

Conquest of Wales.

War with Scotland.

points of the compass, he saw glittering files of spears advancing in converging lines toward the position he held. Bitterly, as he saw this sight, did he cry, 'It was I who taught them the art of war.' But bitter words were of little use at such a crisis. Having put his men in array of battle, he knelt down to say a short prayer, and then took the sacrament, as pious knights always did before going to battle. The fortunes of the day went against him from the first, but he resolved to sell his life dearly. His last stand was made on the top of a hill, where he gathered round him in a solid circle some of his bravest men. When his horse was killed he fought on foot; but the circle at length yielded to the pressure of charges from every side, and brave old Leicester, a benefactor of the English people second to none, fell on his last field. His head and limbs were brutally chopped off, and the horrible fragments were sent as a present to the wife of his greatest foe."—*Collier's Pictures of English History.*

son of a *third* daughter, of David, the brother of a previous king. A furious dispute having arisen in the Scotch parliament, as to the succession, the matter was referred to the arbitration of Edward, who, in accordance with the unanimous opinion of all the great lawyers of Europe, decided in favor of Baliol, as being the most *direct* descendant, and he was accordingly placed upon the throne.

49. Edward, however, had meanly taken advantage of the circumstances to compel Baliol to take an oath of fealty to him, and thus to acknowledge himself a vassal to the English crown; and he subsequently so harassed him by frequent and degrading commands, that Baliol was finally provoked into a refusal to comply, determining to make a stand for his own and his people's liberty. He was, however, unsuccessful; for Edward, invading Scotland with a large army, defeated Baliol in the battle of Dunbar (1296), after which the latter surrendered, and was carried captive to England. He was afterward released, and died in obscurity, in France.

Battle of Dunbar.

50. Scotland, although subdued for a time, soon found a noble champion in the renowned William Wallace, who defeated an English army of 40,000 men, near Stirling, and committed great ravages in the north of England (1297). The next year, however, Edward defeated Wallace, in the battle of Fal'kirk, and again established his government in Scotland. Wallace was never afterward able to gain a decisive victory over his country's enemies; although he fought bravely for several years, until, having been betrayed by one of his own countrymen into the power of Edward, that remorseless king sent him to London; and, in order to intimidate the Scottish leaders, caused him to be executed (1305).

Wallace.

51. The people of Scotland made still another effort to regain their liberties, under the leadership of Robert Bruce, *grandson* of the competitor of Baliol, and now acknowledged

the rightful heir to the throne. The attempt was successful, the English being driven from the country. But Bruce afterward suffered a defeat from one of Edward's generals; and the king himself marched to complete the conquest, but was suddenly taken ill, and died, at Carlisle (1307), enjoining with his last breath his son Edward to prosecute the enterprise, until the Scots should be entirely subdued.

Robert Bruce.

Death of Edward.

52. Edward I. had also carried on war with Philip IV. of France, who had formed an alliance with the Scottish king, Baliol. He confirmed, but with great reluctance, the Great Charter; and (in 1295) caused the deputies from the boroughs to meet the other representatives in Parliament, stating that "what concerns all should be approved by all,"—a principle that lies at the foundation of all civil and political freedom. Edward was one of the ablest and most successful monarchs that ever reigned. He was politic and warlike, popular on account of his majestic personal appearance, his military success, and his wise measures. His efforts to reform and establish the laws gained for him the appellation of the *English Justinian.*

Parliament.

Character of Edward I.

53. Edward II., unmindful of his father's dying injunction, withdrew his forces from Scotland, and the people of that country gradually recovered their freedom. Having, at last, in the seventh year of his reign, invaded the country, he was disastrously defeated by Robert Bruce, in the famous battle of Bannockburn (1314). Of a character the very reverse of his father, Edward soon lost the respect of his people, and gave great offense to the nobles by surrendering himself to the influence of foreign favorites. Civil war finally broke out, in which Isabella, Edward's queen, took part against him; and being deserted by his subjects, he fell into the hands of his enemies, who kept him for some time in prison, but at last

Bannockburn.

Fate of the king.

caused him to be put to death in the most shocking manner (1327). His son Edward had previously been declared king.

54. Edward III. In consequence of the youth of the king, a council of regency was appointed to administer the government; but the real power was possessed by Isabella and her paramour, the infamous Mor'-ti-mer, a prominent baron, both of whom had been accessory to the murder of the late king. This occasioned universal disgust and abhorrence; and the young king soon (1330) found means to punish the murderers of his father, Mortimer being seized and executed as a common criminal, and Isabella placed in confinement, where she was kept until her death. The Scots were defeated by Edward in the great battle of Halidon Hill (1333), and thus were again brought into subjection to the English crown, the young king David Bruce fleeing to France.

Isabella and Mortimer.

Halidon Hill.

55. Edward's next object of ambition was to acquire possession of the throne of France, circumstances seeming to favor that project; for Charles IV., the king of that country, having died without heirs, the nation had placed his cousin Philip VI. on the throne. But Edward, through his mother Isabella, was a more direct descendant; and on this ground, notwithstanding that the ancient laws of France (*the Salic law—i.e.*, law of the Salian Franks) excluded females from the throne, he claimed his right to the succession, and proceeded to vindicate it by force of arms. Having destroyed the French fleet in a great naval battle (1340), he invaded France, and with forces far inferior to those of Philip, defeated him in the memorable battle of Crecy (*kres'e*). This battle is made particularly interesting, not only by the greatness of the victory, but by the fact that in it cannon were for the first time employed by the English,* and also as the occasion

Attack on France.

Crecy.

* Firearms appear to have been used by the Chinese in 618 B.C., nearly two thousand years before the battle of Crecy. They were also used in different forms in

on which the king's son Edward, afterward styled the Black Prince (from the color of his armor), commenced his brilliant military career (1346).*

56. Edward next took Calais (*kal'is*), after a long siege; and expelling all the inhabitants, peopled it anew with English. This city, regarded as the key of France, the English retained for nearly two centuries. While Edward was thus engaged, the Scottish people had again placed David Bruce upon the throne, who invading England, was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Neville's Cross, near Dur'ham (1346). This victory was due to the activity and heroism of Philip'pa, Edward's queen, who, previous to the action, rode through the ranks of the army, encouraging the soldiers. A dreadful plague that swept away many thousands of the people, not only in England but in other parts of Europe, caused for a time a cessation of hostilities between the French and English.

Calais.

Neville's Cross.

Plague.

57. Philip, king of France, having been succeeded by John (1350), and the country ~~been~~ distracted by factious dissensions, Edward resolved again to attack it; and for this purpose dispatched the Black Prince with an army to Guienne, while he himself was to make an incursion by way of Calais.

India: and, as early as the eighth century, by the Saracens. The invention of gunpowder is generally attributed to Friar Bacon, who in 1270 announced its composition: but it was not till 1320 that the proper mode of making it was understood. King Edward's cannon were only of the size of duck-guns.

* The young Prince of Wales had been knighted only a month before; and Edward, who was watching the battle from a windmill, resolved to leave to his son the glory of victory. Although the prince was then hard pressed by the French, the king refused to send succor to his assistance, saying, 'Let the child win his spurs, and let the day be his.' . . . The whole French army took to flight, and was followed and put to the sword, without mercy, till the darkness of the night put an end to the pursuit. The king, on his return to the camp, flew into the arms of the Prince of Wales, and exclaimed, 'My brave son! persevere in your honorable course; you are my son, for valiantly have you acquitted yourself to-day, and worthy are you of a crown.' From this time the young prince became the terror of the French, by whom he was called the Black Prince, from the color of the armor which he wore on that day."—*Hume's History of England.*

The former penetrated into the heart of France with an army of 12,000 men; but at Poitiers (*poi-tērz'*) found himself confronted by a splendidly equipped force of 60,000 men, commanded by John in person. Desirous to retreat, the Prince offered to restore all his conquests and give up the war; but John declining any terms but unconditional surrender, a battle ensued, which, owing to the skill

Poitiers.

MILITARY ACCOUTERMENTS OF THE BLACK PRINCE, SUSPENDED OVER HIS TOMB AT CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

and valor of the Black Prince, resulted in the entire overthrow of the French, John himself being made a prisoner (1356). The French king was kept in captivity in London till ransomed by his subjects (1360); but not being able to fulfill the terms of his release, he returned to London, where he died the next year (1364).

Death of John.

58. Under his successor war was renewed between the two *countries;* but Edward gained no permanent advantage, not-

withstanding the able generalship of the Black Prince. This renowned leader soon after died, worn out by incessant toil and exposure (1376). He was universally esteemed, not only for his heroism and military genius, but for the generosity, moderation, and amiability which shed still greater luster on his character. The king survived him only a year. He was succeeded by Richard, the son of the Black Prince, then only eleven years old (1377).

Black Prince.

Death of the king.

59. Edward III. was a wise and powerful monarch, popular not only for his military success and prudent administration, but for his many personal accomplishments. Although nearly all his time was spent in war, he was comparatively quite a learned man. His familiarity with the Latin and German languages was of great service to him in his foreign wars and negotiations. He took no important steps without consulting his parliament, and so greatly encouraged trade that he has been called the "Father of English commerce." Wool was the chief article of export, and an extensive trade was carried on with the ports of the Baltic. He kept up a close connection with the Flemings, then noted for their extensive woolen manufactures, and thus increased the English trade.

Character.

Trade.

60. Richard II. The first part of this reign is noted for an insurrection of the lower orders of the people, occasioned by the condition of serfdom in which they were kept, and the miseries to which they were subjected by the unjust laws of the period, and by the oppressions of the wealthier classes. The immediate occasion of the outbreak was the imposition of a tax on every person above fifteen years of age, and the indignity with which a young maiden, the daughter of one Wat Tyler (or Wat, the tiler), was treated by a brutal tax-gatherer. This so incensed her father that he struck the officer dead with his hammer; and, being joined by his friends and

Serfdom.

Wat Tyler.

neighbors, raised a revolt, and placed himself at the head of the insurgents.

61. The populace, to the number of 100,000 men, assembled at Blackheath, near London, broke into the city, burned the palaces and mansions of the nobles, plundered the warehouses, and murdered the archbishop and many other persons of distinction. The king having entered upon a conference with Wat Tyler, the latter, it is said, acted with so much insolence that Wal'worth, the Mayor of London, struck him with his sword; whereupon Tyler was immediately dispatched by others of the king's retinue. Richard, to quell the mutiny, acceded to the demands of the insurgents, and the latter dispersed; but the nobility having raised a large army, the ringleaders were apprehended and executed, and the concessions of the king were annulled (1381). This made Richard very unpopular with the common people, for their demands had been reasonable and just; the most important being that *villenage* and serfdom should be abolished, the people paying a fixed rent for their lands, instead of being bound to do such services as their feudal lords might require. Serfdom, however, did not entirely cease in England until more than four centuries after the date of these events.

Death of Wat.

Villenage and serfdom.

62. The subsequent conduct of this king was characterized by indolence and inefficiency. He quarreled with the great officers and distinguished nobles of his court, and gave his entire confidence to unworthy favorites. He had banished his cousin Henry, son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, for being concerned in a duel; and, on the death of the duke, proceeded to dispossess Henry of his estates and annex them to those of the crown. Henry, however, taking advantage of Richard's absence in Ireland, landed with a small force in England; and so unpopular was the king, that the invader was soon joined by a force of 60,000 men. Richard was accord-

The king's character and conduct.

Deposition.

ingly deposed (1399), and, it is said, was soon afterward murdered. During this reign Wickliffe, called by some the "morning star of the Reformation," translated the Bible. He and his doctrines were much favored by John of Gaunt.* Chaucer, styled the "Father of English poetry," also wrote his celebrated poem, "The Canterbury Tales."

Wickliffe and Chaucer.

63. Henry IV., the first of the house of Lancaster, had no legal right to the throne, being a descendant of the *fourth* son of Edward III., while Edmund Mortimer was living, who was descended from the *third* son of the same monarch; hence this reign was little else than a series of insurrections. The most formidable was that excited by the Earl of Northumberland and his son, Harry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, on account of his fiery temper. This young nobleman was distinguished for the battle which, in the previous reign, he had fought with the Scots at Otterburn (1388), and on which was founded the famous ballad of "Chevy Chase." He had also greatly aided Henry in his efforts to obtain possession of the kingdom; but, afterward quarreling with him, joined his forces to those of the Scots under Douglas and the Welsh under Owen Glen'dower, with the object of placing Mortimer on the throne. A terrific battle was fought near Shrewsbury (1403); but the rebels were defeated, and their brave leader, Percy, was slain. The king and his son took part in the battle, and signalized themselves by their feats of strength and daring. Henry IV., after his death in 1413, was succeeded by his son, Henry V.

Right to the throne.

Hotspur.

Shrewsbury

64. Henry V., during his father's life, had been notorious for his riotous and disorderly conduct; and had, on one occa-

* Wickliffe advocated many of the reforms and doctrines afterward preached by Luther and his followers in the sixteenth century. The followers of Wickliffe were called *Lollards*, a name first used in the Netherlands about 1300.

sion, been committed to prison by the chief-justice, whom he had insulted for indicting one of his dissolute companions.

Change in character.

On his accession, however, he dismissed his profligate associates and thoroughly reformed his life, retaining in office the wise ministers of his father, including the chief-justice by whom he had been so fearlessly punished. Soon afterward he invaded France; and having taken Harfleur, after a long siege, he engaged the French army, four times as numerous as his own, and totally

Agincourt.

routed it in the memorable battle of Ag'in-court (1415), 10,000 of the French being slain and 14,000 taken prisoners; while, it is said, the English lost only 40. Henry then returned to England; but, two years later, he again crossed to France, and, after some successes, a

Treaty of Troyes.

treaty was concluded (1420) at Troyes (*trwah*), by which Henry was to marry the king's daughter Catharine, and to succeed to the French throne on the death of Charles, and the two kingdoms were to be united. This treaty was carried into effect, and Henry, as regent of France, entered Paris in triumph. But, in a few months, death stopped short his triumphant career, and put an end to all his schemes of vainglory and ambition (1422).

Lollards.

He left one son, Henry, less than a year old. The persecution of the Lollards, commenced in the previous reign, was continued in this.

65. **Henry VI.**, at his accession, was proclaimed by the Parliament king of France as well as of England; and his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, the most accomplished prince of

Protectorate.

his age, was appointed Protector of the kingdom and guardian of the infant king. On arriving at the age of majority, he showed neither the capacity nor the disposition to take control of the government. He married

Marriage.

Margaret of Anjou, a princess whose accomplishments and masculine energy of character were *well suited* to supply the defects and weaknesses of her hus-

band.* But the incapacity of the king encouraged the rival house of York to lay claim to the throne, in behalf of Richard, Duke of York, the descendant of Edward's third son, who was a man of ability and valor, as well as immense wealth. In this pretension Richard was upheld by the greatest nobleman of the kingdom, the renowned Earl of Warwick (*war'-rick*), afterward called the *King-maker*, whose means and possessions were so extensive that 30,000 retainers were constantly supported by him in his various castles and manors.† An insurrection of the lower orders, under a leader named Jack Cade, broke out about this time, but was soon put down, Cade being slain (1450).

Warwick.

Jack Cade.

66. The king's government being very unpopular, Richard raised an army, ostensibly for the redress of grievances; and in the battle of St. Albans (*awl'-bans*) defeated the royalists (1455), and took the king prisoner. This was the first battle in that great civil war

War of the Roses.

* "When Henry was twenty-three years old, his council suggested that it was time he should marry; and every one foresaw that the queen, whoever she might be, would possess the control over the weak mind of her husband. The choice of Henry was directed toward Margaret the daughter of Réné, King of Sicily and Duke of Anjou. In personal beauty she was thought superior to most women, in mental capacity equal to most men of the age. The marriage was agreed on. Margaret landed at Portchester, was married to Henry at Tichfield, and crowned May 30, 1444."—*Lingard's History of England.*

† "During the whole extent of England's history, under the Saxon, Dane, or Norman, the mightiest of her barons was the king-maker, Warwick. It was his power that made Edward king, and his that unmade him. It was his power that dethroned King Henry, and it was his that restored him. Each monarch in turn became the captive and prisoner of this great earl. With princely revenues and estates, Warwick's vassals were an army; and some notion may be formed of the force he could, at will, bring armed into the field, from the fact that he is said to have daily feasted, at his numerous manors and castles, upward of thirty thousand persons. The other nobles possessed, in their degree, the power of an armed feudal retinue, ready to follow their lord to battle in any cause of his choosing; and thus there was a baronial power of which modern England shows only the shadow. As the traveler now beholds the stately walls of Warwick Castle, he can scarce, with all the impulse given to his imagination, call up the vision of the armed hosts which, some three hundred years ago, could, at a moment's summons, be gathered there in battle array."—*Reed's Lectures on English History.*

styled the "War of the Roses" (from the badges of the parties, the Lancastrians wearing a *red rose* and the Yorkists a *white rose*). This war lasted thirty years, was signalized by twelve pitched battles, and almost annihilated the ancient nobility of England. The next year after the battle of St. Albans, the king was restored to his authority; but the contest soon broke out with increased fury, and in the battle of Northampton the king was defeated and taken prisoner by the Earl of Warwick (1460), after which the Duke of York was proclaimed the lawful successor of Henry, and Edward, the son of Henry and Margaret, was excluded from the throne. The queen, however, fled to Scotland, and with the aid of the northern barons raised a large army, with which, in the battle of Wakefield, she defeated the Duke of York, who was taken prisoner and put to death (1460). A few weeks after this Margaret defeated the Earl of Warwick and regained possession of the king; but Edward, son of the late Duke of York, joining his forces with those of Warwick, compelled her to retreat, and, triumphantly entering London, was proclaimed king, under the title of Edward IV. (1461).

Edward IV.

67. Edward IV. Queen Margaret, however, was not subdued. She succeeded in collecting an army of 60,000 men in the northern counties, with which she encountered the forces of Edward and Warwick in the terrific battle of Tow'ton; but was totally defeated (1461), and compelled, with her husband, to take refuge in Scotland. During the next three years Margaret made but one effort to recover the lost kingdom, but was defeated and compelled to flee to France; a short time after which Henry fell into the possession of the king, and was confined in the Tower at London. Edward's vices, however, and his marriage with Elizabeth Gray, a Lancastrian knight's widow, upon whose relatives the infatuated monarch showered all his favors, so dis-

Defeat of Margaret.

Vices of the king.

gusted the brave and high-spirited Warwick that he deserted the cause of Edward, and formed an alliance with Margaret. So popular was this nobleman that in a few days he raised an army of 60,000 men, compelled Edward to flee, and placed Henry again on the throne (1471). Disaster soon followed this great victory; for Edward landing in England with a small force, was soon joined by an immense army, and regaining possession of London, once more made prisoner the hapless Henry, and marched against Warwick, who had taken a position at Bar'net, near London.

Henry again king.

68. The king-maker, deserted by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, brother to Edward, who with a large force went over to the Yorkists, was defeated in the battle of Barnet, and slain (1471); and, a fortnight afterward, Edward gained a decisive victory over the forces of Margaret at Tewks'bury, the latter, with her son Edward, being among the prisoners. The young prince was cruelly put to death by the Dukes of Clarence and Gloster, brothers of Edward IV., and Margaret was imprisoned in the Tower. A few days after this battle Henry expired in the Tower, according to general belief, by the murderous hand of the cruel and wicked Duke of Gloster. Queen Margaret afterward found a refuge in France, where she died (1482). Edward, being now secure on the throne, gave himself up to every species of vice and debauchery. He caused his brother, Duke of Clarence, to be put to death on a charge of treason, being probably instigated to this crime by his younger brother, Richard, Duke of Gloster, who was noted for his designing character and unrelenting ambition. Edward was about to engage in a war with France, when he was seized with a distemper, of which he expired (1483).

Defeat of Warwick.

Death of Henry.

Murder of Clarence.

69. Edward V., the eldest son of Edward IV., a youth of twelve years, was proclaimed king; and his uncle, the Duke

of Gloster, was appointed Protector. This artful and wicked prince, obtaining possession of the young king and his brother Richard, placed them in the Tower; and caused Lord Rivers, their maternal uncle, and Lord Hastings, with several other distinguished persons, to be executed on a charge of treason. He then gave out that the young princes were illegitimate; and contrived that some of his friends should solicit him to take the crown, which, with pretended reluctance, he accepted, and held under the title of Richard III. (1483).

Duke of Gloster.

70. Richard III. The first act of this wicked usurper was to destroy the two young princes, who are supposed to have been smothered in their beds in the Tower by his orders. But he was not permitted quietly to enjoy the fruits of his crimes. A conspiracy was formed against him by his former friend, the Duke of Buckingham; but it failed, and Buckingham was seized and executed. The nation, however, soon found a deliverer in Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the last heir of the house of Lancaster, who, landing at Milford Haven, in Wales, was soon joined by sufficient forces to cope with those of the usurper. An engagement took place at Bosworth Field; and Richard, being deserted by Lord Stanley and a large part of his army, was defeated, and he himself, fighting desperately in the conflict, was slain. Richmond was proclaimed king on the battle-field, with the title of Henry VII., by Sir William Stanley, brother of Lord Stanley (1485).*

Murder of the princes.

Henry Tudor.

Bosworth.

* "The battle which brought to a close the famous War of the Roses was fought on Redmore Plain, about a mile to the south of Market-Bosworth in Leicestershire. From this town it received the name by which it is most generally called—the battle of Bosworth. The leaders of the war were Richard Plantagenet, a little sharp-faced man, with one shoulder somewhat higher than the other, from which slight deformity he was branded by his enemies with the name of Hunchback; and Henry Tudor, or Tydder, a gray-eyed cautious man, with long yellow hair. The former represented the House of York; the latter, the House of Lancaster."—*Collier's Pictures from English History.*

STATE OF SOCIETY IN ENGLAND,

During the Period of the Plantagenets (1154–1485).

71. The institution of the House of Commons, the granting of Magna Charta, and the abolition of serfdom were the most important events in the political and social progress of England during this period. The English kings constantly sought to evade the provisions of the great charter, but without success, for no less than thirty-eight times were they compelled to ratify it. Trial by jury took the place of the "judicial combat" of the Normans, the charter prescribing "the legal judgment of his peers" as necessary for the condemnation of every one charged with committing crime.

Political and social progress.

Trial by jury.

72. In the earlier reigns, although so much had been accomplished toward laying the foundation of English liberty, the condition of the common people was very little improved. A degrading system of serfdom continued to exist. Slaves were bought and sold at the fairs, and it is said that the price of a man was less than that of a horse.* But in the Lancastrian period, the result of the great civil commotions was to introduce considerable changes in the social condition of the people. One of the most important of these was the extinction of villanage, or serfdom. The nobles being compelled to arm their serfs in the Wars of the Roses, could never afterward

Serfdom.

Abolition.

* "Of the two millions of human beings who inhabited England in the reign of John, a very large number, probably nearly half, were in a state of slavery. Those who are disposed to listen to tales about 'Merrie England' and 'the good old times' should remember this fact. At the commencement of true English history, we start with the laborers in abject wretchedness. The narrative of the changes in their social and political positions thenceforward to modern times is certainly a history of progressive amelioration, though lamentably slow and imperfect."—*Creasy.*

reduce them to servitude. The ancient nobility having nearly all perished in these long wars, feudalism in England was destroyed, and a better system took its place.

Feudalism.

73. The great staple of commerce was wool, which, with other commodities—tin, lead, leather, etc.—was sold principally to the German merchants, who exported into England gold, silver, silks, wines, spices, and other luxuries for exchange. In the latter part of the period silk-making was introduced, and a law was passed to protect those engaged in it from the competition of the Lombard merchants (1455). Agriculture continued to be very rude; and large tracts of tilled land were converted into sheep-pastures, in order that the grain of foreign countries might be purchased with the wool thus obtained.

Commerce.

1 2 3

1. Knight of Garter; 2. Gentleman; 3. Citizen.

Agriculture.

Hats and Caps.

74. The modes of living gradually became more refined. Glass windows, vessels of earthenware, the use of coal for fuel and of candles for lighting purposes enlarged the comforts of the people. The costume of this period was curious and fantastic. Long-pointed shoes, with the toes fastened to the knees or the girdle; stockings of different colors; a coat half blue or black, half white, with

Mode of living.

trousers reaching scarcely to the knees, were some of the most prominent peculiarities in the dress of the fine gentlemen. The ladies wore party-colored tunics, very short tippets, small caps, and girdles ornamented with gold and silver, in which they carried two small swords. Their trains were very long; and their head-

Costume.

LADIES' HEAD-DRESSES. (*Froissart.*)

dresses towered sometimes two feet above their heads, and were decked at the summit with waving ribbons of various colors.

75. Science made some progress, particularly through the researches of Roger Bacon (1214–1292), who applied the learning which he had acquired at Oxford to the making of useful inventions. He discovered the composition of gunpowder and the use of the magnifying-glass, and devised various mathematical and philosophical instruments. This wonderful knowledge caused him to be regarded by the people as a magician, and he was confined in prison for many years. Astrology and alchemy were favorite subjects of research; but though the alchemists failed in their laborious search for the "philosopher's stone" and the "elixir of life," they laid, by their experiments, the foundation of

Science and learning.

Astrology and alchemy.

modern chemistry, as the astrologers, by their constant observations, contributed to the progress of astronomy.

Printing.

76. The great event of this period was the introduction of printing by William Caxton, who, after acquiring a knowledge of the art in Holland and Germany, set up a press at Westminster, during the reign of Edward IV. Previous to this there were no books except such as had been prepared with great expense of time and labor in the "writing-rooms" of the monasteries, for learning was confined almost exclusively to the clergy. The first book printed in England by Caxton was *The Game and Playe of Chesse* (1474). The types used by him were like those used by the Germans (*black-letter*), which was the common style of print till the reign of James I.

Caxton.

CHAUCER.

English literature.

77. The first era of English literature may be placed in the reign of Edward III., when the *Travels of Sir John Mandeville* were published (1360). This is the earliest known work in English prose. The famous John Wickliffe (1324–1384), who translated the Bible, and the poet Geoffrey Chaucer (1328–1400) flourished during the same reign. The language of these writers is called "Middle English," because it comes between the "semi-Saxon," which preceded it, and modern English, which commenced in the reign of Elizabeth. Dramatic literature included only such compositions as the *Mysteries* or *Miracle Plays*, the subjects selected being of a religious character. They were succeeded by the *Moral Plays*, the object of which was to give moral lessons by presenting on the stage ingenious allegories.

Middle English.

The drama.

Kings of England,

From Egbert (827) to Henry VII. (1485).

Line.	Name.	Date of reign.
Saxon.	Egbert	827- 836
	Four reigns	836- 871
	Alfred the Great	871- 901
	Edward the Elder	901- 925
	Eight reigns	925-1016
Saxon, Danish.	Canute	1016-1035
	Harold I. (Harefoot)	1035-1040
	Hardicanute	1040-1042
Saxon.	Edward the Confessor	1042-1066
	Harold II	1066-1066
Norman.	William I	1066-1087
	William II	1087-1100
	Henry I	1100-1135
	Stephen	1135-1154
Plantagenet.	Henry II	1154-1189
	Richard I	1189-1199
	John	1199-1216
	Henry III	1216-1272
	Edward I	1272-1307
	Edward II	1307-1327
	Edward III	1327-1377
	Richard II	1377-1399
	Henry IV	1399-1413
	Henry V	1413-1422
	Henry VI	1422-1461
	Edward IV	1461-1483
	Edward V	1483-1483
	Richard III	1483-1485

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
Union of the Saxon kingdoms under Egbert	827
Battle of Hastings. Harold defeated by the Normans	1066
Assassination of Thomas à Becket	1170
Conquest of Ireland	1172
Magna Charta signed by King John	1215
Battle of Lewes. Defeat of Henry III. by Leicester	1264
House of Commons instituted by Leicester	1265
Conquest of Wales by Edward I.	1272
The Scots defeated at Dunbar by Edward I.	1296
William Wallace defeated at Falkirk	1298
Wallace taken prisoner and executed	1305
Edward II. defeated by Robert Bruce at Bannockburn	1314
The Scots defeated at Halidon Hill	1333
The French defeated at Crecy by Edward III.	1346
The French defeated at Poitiers by the Black Prince	1356
Death of Edward the Black Prince	1376
Insurrection under Wat Tyler	1381
Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas	1388
A Lollard clergyman burnt at the stake	1401
Battle of Shrewsbury. Percy defeated and slain	1403
The French defeated at Agincourt by Henry V.	1415
Jack Cade's rebellion	1450
The royalists defeated at St. Albans	1455
Battle of Northampton. Henry VI. taken prisoner	1460
Queen Margaret defeated at Towton	1461
Warwick defeated by Edward IV. at Barnet	1471
Art of Printing introduced into England	1474
Death of Queen Margaret in France	1482
Battle of Bosworth. Henry VII. proclaimed king	1485

Topical Review.

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What conquests did they make?

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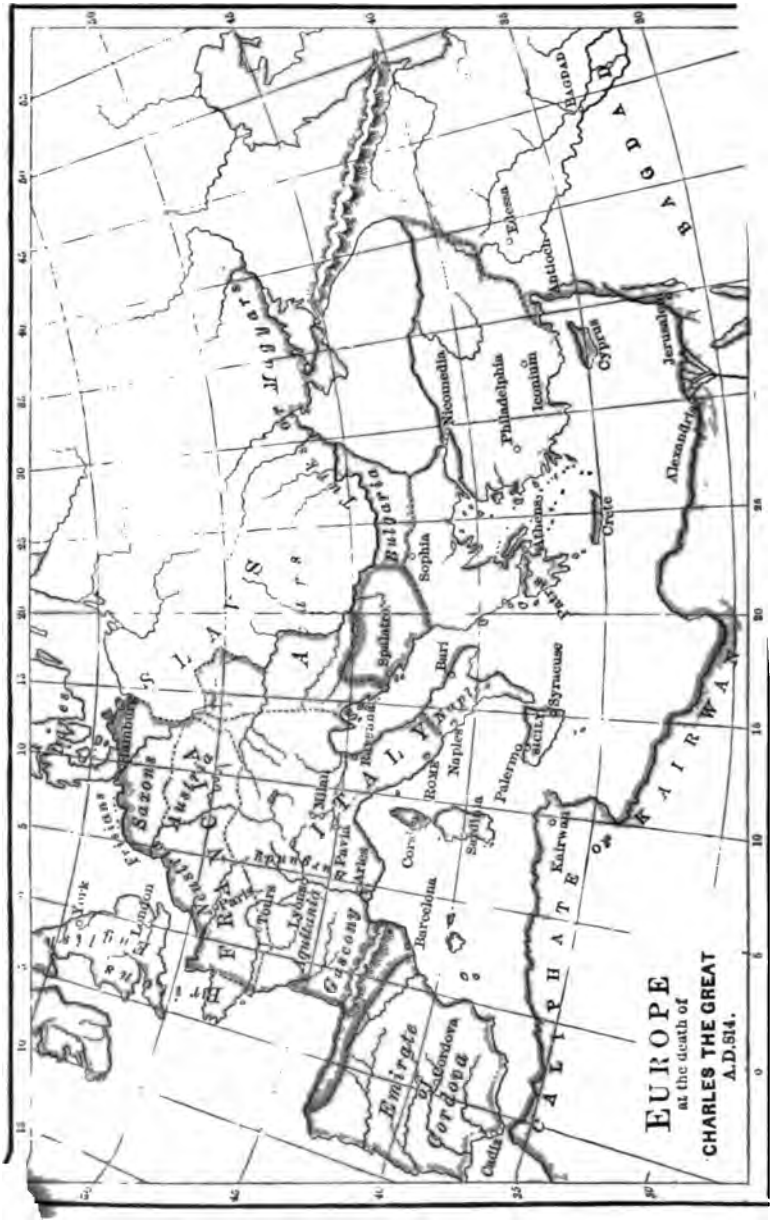


CHAPTER V.

FRANCE IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

SECTION I.

THE CAPETIAN DYNASTY.

1. DURING the period of nearly two centuries (814–987) that elapsed from the death of Charlemagne to the termination of the reign of his successors, called the *Carlovingian dynasty*, the throne of France was occupied mostly by weak princes. Toward the close of this period, the feudal lords had shorn the king of most of his power, and the kingdom consisted of a loose collection of provinces over which they held sway. At length Hugh Capet (*kah-pa'*), son of Hugh the Great, the most powerful of these vassals, seized the throne, and inaugurated a new line of kings, named after him the *Capetian dynasty*.

Carlovingian princes.

Hugh Capet.

2. Hugh Capet. During the early reigns of this dynasty the actual dominions of the French king were of but small extent, a large part of the territory having been usurped by the ambitious nobles and held only by the feudal tie. The most important of these provinces were Brittany, in the northwest; Normandy, in the north; Aquitaine, or Guienne (*ghe-en'*), and Anjou (*ahn'joo*), in the west; Gascony and Navarre, in the southwest; Provence (*pro-vahns'*), in the southeast; Burgundy and Champagne (*shong-pahn'*), in the east;

French dominions.

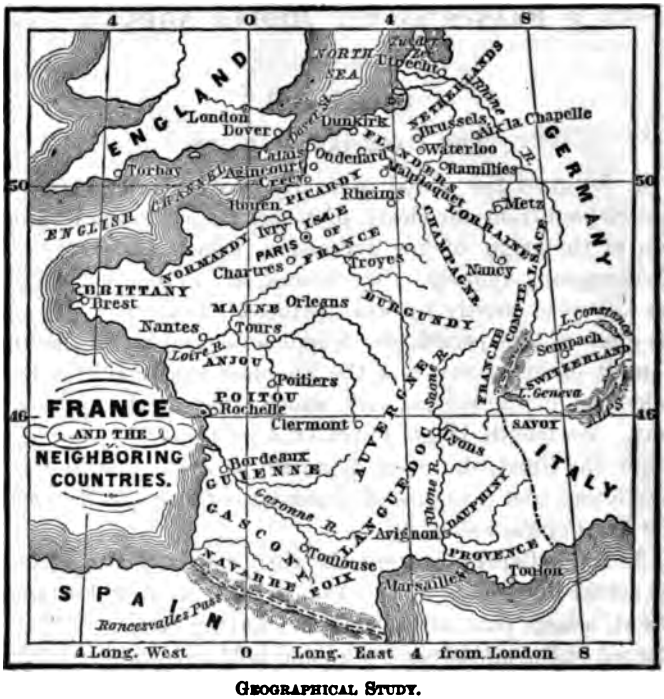
Provinces.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XII.

What was the situation of: FRANCIA (France)? AQUITANIA? BURGUNDY? AUSTRIA? NEUSTRIA? BAVARIA? EMIRATE OF CORDOVA? BULGARIA? BAGDAD?

Where was the territory of: THE AVARS? TURKS or MAGYARS? Who held the northern part of Africa? The territory between the Mediterranean Sea and the Euphrates River? What did the Eastern Empire embrace?

and Flanders, in the northeast. The history of this period is mainly occupied with the wars which were waged to bring



GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What was the situation of: NORMANDY? BRITTANY? PICARDY? MAINE? ANJOU? POITOU? GUIENNE? GASCONY? LANGUEDOC? PROVENCE? DAUPHINY? AUVERGNE? BURGUNDY? CHAMPAGNE? LORRAINE? ALSACE? FLANDERS? NETHERLANDS? SAVOY? Paris? Aix la Chapelle? Metz? Rheims? Troyes? Lyons? Avignon? Toulouse? Bordeaux? Nantes? Orleans? Crecy? Calais? Rouen? Brest?

about a consolidation of the kingdom. Hugh Capet was an active and prudent monarch; and, during his reign of nearly ten years, he succeeded in overcoming all opposition to his authority, and in enlarging his dominions. At his death he left the throne to his son Robert (996).

Character of Capet.

3. Robert succeeded in annexing Burgundy to his dominions. During this reign the year 1000 arrived, which, as the date of the *millennium*, had been very generally predicted as the "end of the world."* This belief occasioned general neglect and idleness; and a dreadful famine and pestilence was the result, which swept away vast multitudes of people, and caused the most frightful miseries and crimes. The superstition and ignorance of the people, and the oppression and vices of the nobles, made this one of the darkest periods in human history. Robert died in 1031, leaving the throne to his son Henry.

Year 1000.

4. Henry I. This reign is noted for the repeated wars which Henry waged with the Duke of Normandy—William, afterward the Conqueror of England—who successfully defended his dominions against the attacks of the French king. Thus was produced that aversion between the English and French monarchs that occasioned so many wars during the following reigns. The power of the Church was exercised during this reign to put a check to the unceasing warfare of the nobles, and to procure some respite for the unfortunate peasantry, so that they might cultivate the lands, and thus prevent famine and pestilence. This was effected by establishing what was called the *Truce of God*—a religious injunction against all military operations, dueling, and other acts of violence, from Wednesday, at sunset, till sunrise on Monday, and on all feast and holy days. This regulation did much, eventually, to soften the ferocity of

Wars with Normandy.

Truce of God.

* "Toward the close of the tenth century, a false interpretation of a passage in the Gospels, according to which the end of the world and the second coming of Jesus Christ in Judea had been fixed for the year 1000, had struck all Christendom with stupor and affright. 'The end of the world being at hand,' were the opening words of all deeds and contracts; and the vanities of the world being forgotten in the near approach of the 'supreme and inevitable catastrophe,' every one was anxious to start for the Holy Land, in the hope of being present at the coming of the Saviour, and of finding there pardon for his sins, a peaceful death, and the salvation of the soul."—*Lacroix's Military and Religious Life in the Middle Ages.*

these terrible times. Henry was succeeded by his son Philip (1060).

5. Philip I. and Louis VI. Philip's reign is noted for the conquest of England by Duke William of Normandy (1066), and the preaching of the First Crusade (1095), an account of which is given further on (see page 121). Philip was succeeded by his son Louis (1108). This king, surnamed the *Fat*, was wise and energetic. He did important service to France by keeping the great vassals of the crown under control, and gave to the towns their first charters, thus relieving large numbers of the lower orders from the wretched condition of serfdom, in which they had been kept by the iron hand of the aristocracy. These early municipalities were called *Communes*, or commons (afterward the *Third Estate*), and consisted of citizens leagued together for mutual interest and defense. Louis VI. was succeeded by his son Louis (1137).

Chief events.

Louis the Fat.

Communes.

6. Louis VII., by marrying Eleanor, became possessed of Guienne and Poitou (*pwah-too'*); but during the expedition which he undertook to the Holy Land (see page 123), and in which he was accompanied by his queen, he was so provoked by the freedom and levity of her conduct that he divorced her, and thus lost her great possessions. These he had the mortification of seeing annexed to the dominions of Henry, Duke of Normandy, Count of Anjou and Maine, and afterward king of England (Henry II.), whom Eleanor married after her divorce from the French king. In this way the English monarch came into possession of more extensive territories in France than those of the French king himself. Louis was succeeded by his son Philip (1180).

Eleanor.

Loss of territory.

7. Philip II. (*Augustus*). During this reign the authority of the monarch was more generally acknowledged than it had been since the accession of Hugh Capet, and the country

became more united and powerful. This was partly due to the great ability and prudence of Philip, who knew how to make himself respected and feared. He engaged in the Third Crusade with Richard I. of England; but, becoming jealous of the English monarch's fame, he deserted him, and, returning home, basely plotted with Richard's brother John to seize his dominions. Failing in this, he afterward obtained the English provinces in France by means of the wickedness and cowardice of John (1204). He thus added to his dominions Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Poitou, and Louvain; and gradually extended his sway to the Pyrenees. He greatly improved the discipline of the army, encouraged learning, and walled and paved Paris and several other towns. After a reign of forty-three years, he left his kingdom in a state of tranquillity to his son Louis (1223).

Power of the king.

Crusade.

Measures of the king.

Crusading Knight.

8. This reign is memorable for the rise of the Al-bi-gen'-ses, a numerous sect of dissenters from the Catholic Church, who became prominent at the commencement of the thirteenth century, in Languedoc (*lan'ghe-doc*), and were supported by Raymond VI., Count of that province. They received their name from Albigeois (al-be-

Albigenses.

zhwah), the district in which they first appeared. During the reign of Philip Augustus (1209), Pope Innocent III. caused a crusade to be preached against them, excommunicating both them and Count Raymond; and, in the war which ensued, many of their towns were taken, and the most dreadful massacres perpetrated. Raymond was at last obliged to submit to the authority of the Pope. During the war Simon de Montfort, the elder,* took an active part against the Albigenses, and was conspicuous for his cruelty and perfidy. He was killed at the siege of Toulouse (1218).

9. Louis VIII. was a feeble monarch, but the wise policy of his father had given such an impulse to affairs, that France continued to be triumphant over the English, who, during the reign of Henry III., made repeated attacks upon the French territories (see page 70).

English attacks.

Another crusade was undertaken against the Albigenses by Louis VIII. by request of the Pope. With a large army he laid siege to Avignon (*ah-vēn'yong*), but was kept so long under its walls that 20,000 men perished by disease and famine; and Louis himself died a short time after he had received the submission of the conquered inhabitants (1226).

War against the Albigenses.

10. Louis IX. (*Saint Louis*), son and successor of Louis VIII., was but a youth at the time of his accession, and the government was administered by his mother, Blanche of Castile (*kas-teel'*), during whose regency the war against the Albigenses was closed by the complete submission of Count Raymond, and the cession, by formal treaty, of Languedoc to the crown of France (1229). The remnant of this people emigrated to the east, and are lost sight of in history a century later. Louis, though uninstructed in letters, had imbibed the most excellent principles of conduct from his

Close of the war.

King's character.

* *Father of the famous Earl of Leicester, who founded the English House of Commons.* (See page 358.)

mother, and he strictly observed them after he attained the age of majority. He engaged in a crusade (1249) against the sultan of Egypt, but was taken prisoner, and ransomed by his subjects for an immense sum ($1,500,000). Returning after an absence of five years, he ruled with so much candor and moderation, and with such a conscientious regard for justice and rectitude, that he was universally esteemed, and was enabled to promote the true progress and happiness of his people. In another crusade, undertaken to check the Mohammedans in Syria, he died while on his way thither, near Tunis (1270). Some years after his death, he was canonized by Pope Boniface VIII.*

Other events.

11. Philip III., called the *Hardy* (because his constitution had proved strong enough to resist the pestilence that carried off his father), continued the war against the Moors; and, with the aid of his uncle, Charles of Anjou, king of Sicily, reduced the king of Tunis to submission. Charles, who had but recently acquired possession of Sicily, became very odious to the people by his arbitrary government and the excesses of his followers; and this discontent was encouraged by Peter, king of Aragon,† who claimed the island. The result was that on Easter-day (1282), when the church-bells sounded for vespers, the Sicilians rushed on all the French inhabitants they met, and massacred them without mercy. About 8000 perished by this dreadful event, which is known in history as the *Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.* Peter of Ara-

War against Tunis.

Sicilian Vespers.

* "The character of St. Louis is one of the noblest that occurs in modern history. He possessed all the virtues of his age, untarnished by its vices; he was brave without cruelty or violence, pious without bigotry or weakness. Although more the hero of the legend than of romance, he commands our admiration by his rare disinterestedness, his bold attempt to rule his actions as a monarch by the rigid maxims of private honor, and by the great good sense that tempered his devotion, and that never allowed him to sacrifice humanity or justice to the interests even of that Church which he revered."—*Crowe's History of France.*

† *Aragon* was at this time an important kingdom in the northeastern part of Spain; and Peter rested his claim to Sicily on his marriage with Constance, daughter of a previous king of that island.

gon, by this means, succeeded in expelling Charles of Anjou from Sicily; and Philip III., taking up the cause of his uncle, made an unsuccessful invasion of Aragon, and died a short time afterward of a fever, resulting from disappointment and fatigue (1285).

12. Philip IV. (*le Bel—the Fair*) succeeded at the age of seventeen. His reign is one of the most important in French history. He carried on a war of seven years with Edward I. of England, in order to obtain Guienne; but finally consented to a treaty relinquishing his claims to that duchy. He obtained possession of Flanders, but governed it so oppressively that the people (called *Flemings*) rose in revolt and massacred the French to the number of 3000. Philip endeavored to reduce the Flemings to submission, but this brave people successfully defended their liberties against his assaults. The Flemings were, at this period, greatly distinguished for their skill in weaving and in other industrial arts. One of the most remarkable events of this reign was the suppression of the famous order of *Knights Templars*. Philip's measures were harsh and summary. He ordered all the Templars in France to be arrested on the same day; and the Grand Master and others, having been condemned for sacrilege and immorality, were burnt to death.* This order of knights was also prosecuted and condemned in other parts of Europe.† Philip died in 1314.

War with England.

Flemish war.

Knights Templars.

* The king, Philip IV., ordered two Templars, one of them the Grand Master, to be burned. "It was probably owing to the last words of the Master—'God will avenge our death'—that there arose a popular rumor that the Master, at his death, had cited the Pope and the king to appear with him, the former at the end of forty days, and the latter within a year, before the judgment-seat of God. Events gave a sanction to the legend;" for both Clement and Philip actually died within the time named.

† This celebrated religious and military order was founded at Jerusalem in the beginning of the twelfth century, for the protection of the Holy Sepulcher, and the pilgrims who journeyed thither. It afterward spread all over Europe, and became noted for its vast possessions. It was suppressed in England by Edward II. (1309), and the general council that met at Vienna in 1311, pronounced a decree annulling

13. The most important act in the reign of Philip was his creation of the *Third Estate* (*Tiers État*). Up to this time there had been only two recognized orders in France, the nobles and the clergy. In 1302, however, Philip being then at the height of his quarrel with the Pope, and feeling his need of the support of the whole people of France, permitted the burghers, or common people, to send representatives to the States-General which he had called. In this general council, these representatives sat on equal terms with those of the nobles and the clergy; and thus one of the most despotic kings of France was the means of bringing about a great political advance in the condition of the people. From that time three *estates* were known in France: the nobles, the clergy, and the people, or, as the latter were called, the *Third Estate.*

Third Estate.

14. Louis X. was surnamed *Hutin* (disorder, or tumult), from the tumultuous conduct of the nobles and clergy, who attempted to regain from Louis the powers and privileges of which they had been deprived by his artful and despotic father. He yielded to most of their demands, and issued an ordinance enfranchising the serfs within the royal domains. During his short reign, he was under the influence of his uncle, Charles of Valois (*val-wah'*), who employed it to destroy Marigny (*mah-reen'ye*), the former prime minister of Philip the Fair; and this distinguished man was condemned and put to death upon a malicious and absurd charge of sorcery. On the death of the king (1316), the government was administered by his brother Philip, as regent; and, the infant son of Louis X. having died, Philip became king (1317).

Nobles and clergy.

Marigny.

and abolishing the order, and bestowed its privileges on the Knights of St. John. At the time of its suppression in France, the number of the knights in that country was about 15,000. Their treasury contained 150,000 gold florins, besides large quantities of silver, precious stones, rich vases, etc. It is believed by many that Philip's persecution was instigated by the desire to obtain this vast hoard in order to satisfy his cupidity.

15. Philip V. (*le Long—the Tall*) assembled the States-General to pronounce upon his right to the throne, which was disputed by the daughter of Louis X.; and a decree was issued declaring that females are incapable of inheriting the crown of France. This decree, being based, as it was said, upon the barbarous code of the Salian Franks, was called the *Sal'ic Law.* During this reign, France was the scene of dreadful religious persecutions, particularly of the Jews, who were put to death in Tou-raine' with the most dreadful barbarity. Philip, after a brief reign of five years, was succeeded by his brother Charles (1322).

Salic law.

Jews.

16. Charles IV. became king by the operation of the Salic law, for Philip V. had left daughters but no sons. His reign is almost a blank, being only noted for his invasion of Guienne, to which he was invited by the troubles of Edward II. of England. It was in France that the wicked Queen Isabella, sister of Charles IV., plotted with Mortimer for the destruction of her unfortunate husband. Charles afterward restored Guienne to Edward III. On the death of Charles without male heirs (1328), the direct line became extinct, and Philip of Valois, nephew of Philip the Fair, succeeded to the throne. This introduces a collateral line of kings, called the *Branch of Valois.*

Guienne.

End of the Capets

State of Society during the Capetian Period.

17. The most important changes which took place in France during the Capetian period were the firm establishment of the monarchy and the elevation of the common people. A result of this was the slow decay of feudalism. Attacked from above by the king and from below by the people, it yielded gradually in the contest.*

Changes.

* "The introduction of standing armies was unquestionably the most important political change in the history of modern Europe. When introduced in one nation

A new power rose into prominence during this period—the power of the people. The working-man became a soldier, and the tradesmen of the cities, whose friendship the king had found useful to him in his struggle with the lords, were granted special charters, which protected them in their industries. At first the king left to each city the conduct of its affairs, being satisfied with appointing a royal superintendent. This was followed by

Power of the people.

RAMPARTS OF A TOWN IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

other claims, from time to time, till, finally, each man, instead of boasting as before that he was the inhabitant of a particular city, came to pride himself upon being the king's yeoman.

18. The purchase of their freedom by the serfs, after it had begun, went on with great rapidity. A large middle

all were obliged to follow the example. This at once made it impossible to continue the system of government which prevailed everywhere during the Middle Ages. On the Continent it led to despotic government, in England to the supremacy of Parliament."—*Wilberforce's Church and the Empires.*

class of citizens was thus formed, the existence of which supplied a condition favorable to the existence of trade and commerce. The danger, however, which attended all communication between different parts of the country checked their growth. Robbery and crime on the public highway were common, and only in the immediate neighborhood of towns and cities was property secure. This state of affairs was gradually amended by strict laws passed by the king as his power increased. The establishment also of a uniform currency, and a system of regulations for the government of the different kinds of trades which existed, aided greatly in making them permanent.

Trade.

Currency.

19. Trade centers soon came to be established, which, by means of annual fairs, attracted merchants from all parts of Europe. The wines of southern France found a ready market in England and the Netherlands, and were exchanged in Spain for arms, and leather fabrics of many kinds. The fisheries of the southern ports also yielded a large revenue. Some of the products introduced by the Crusaders gave rise to entirely new industries. Among these were the glass of Tyre and the tissues of Damascus. The use of flax and silk, and the employment of windmills, is also ascribed to them; and the introduction of the sugar-cane, the plum-tree, as well as the cultivation of the mulberry. Enameling of various kinds, seal-engraving, and the art of the goldsmith had also reached a high degree of perfection.

Trade centers.

Industries.

20. In all parts of France, at the end of this period, schools existed in connection with the Church. There was, however, a great want of books. Five universities afforded a higher education, of which the most noted was that of Paris, the independence of which was recognized by Philip Augustus in 1203. This was attended by between 15,000 and 20,000 students. Latin was the language employed in instruction, and all civilized countries

Education.

sent students to be educated there. In 1250 Robert de Sorbon, chaplain of Louis IX., founded a school of theology, afterward called the Sorbonne (*sor-bon'*).

21. Down to the thirteenth century, people of the lower classes were not permitted to wear the dress or ornaments peculiar to the nobility. An edict of Philip the Fair prescribes minutely the number and cost of the dresses the tradeswomen may wear. The dress of the *villain* consisted of a blouse of cloth or skin, fastened at the waist by a leather belt, a mantle of woolen stuff, trousers of the same, and shoes or large boots. Fastened to his belt was a wallet or purse, and a sheath for his knife. Notwithstanding the hard condition of the laboring classes, they had many holidays, nearly all the festival days of the Church being devoted partly to amusement. On these occasions they drank, sang, danced, practiced archery, played athletic games, and passed most of the day in merriment. Nearly all the occupations now pursued in the rural districts were in use in the earliest times.

Dress.

Holidays.

22. At this time the French language began to take definite form, and the laws which heretofore had been written in Latin now were issued in French. The literature of the period embraces history, poetry, and romance. In the middle and north of France the Trouvères (*troo-vare'*), like the Troubadours* of the south, produced a series of poems that became models for other countries. Among the eminent men of this period may be mentioned Ab'él-ard (1079–1142), illustrious for his genius as a philosopher and lecturer; St. Bernard (1091–1153), the famous preacher of the Second Crusade, and celebrated not only for his piety

Language and literature.

Trouveres.

Eminent men.

* The Troubadours were accompanied in their wanderings by minstrels and jugglers, the latter displaying their skill at the close of the poem or recitation. Sometimes the minstrels were formed into an orchestra, to the music of which dancing took place.

but for his extensive learning; Jehan de Joinville (1223–1317), who wrote a biography of St. Louis, noted for its graphic description of all the minute events of that famous reign; and the Abbé Suger (*soo-zha'*) (1085–1152), the most eminent of politicians during the reign of Louis VI. and Louis VII.

SECTION II.

Branch of Valois.

23. Philip VI. The claim set up by Edward III. of England to the throne of France, in opposition to the right of Philip of Valois, has already been referred to. The victories gained by Edward in the war that followed did not give him the object of his desires; and, a truce being agreed on, he returned to England. Dau'phiny was about this time ceded to the grandson of Philip, afterward King Charles V., and later was annexed to France. The king's eldest son thereafter bore the title of *Dauphin.* The *Black Plague* raged throughout France during this reign, and carried off vast multitudes of people—50,000 in Paris alone.* Philip was succeeded by his son John (1350).

English claim.

Dauphiny.

Plague.

Geographical Study, Maps Nos. XIII. and XIV.

What was the extent of the Royal Domain in 987? What in 1328? What did it embrace at the latter date? What were the limits of Aquitaine at the former date? What at the latter? Mention the chief provinces at the time of Hugh the Great? At the time of Valois? *What was the situation of:* Bruges? Ghent? Köln (Cologne)? Mainz? Strasburg? Basel? Metz? Nancy? Chalons? Lyons? Avignon? Arles? Narbonne? Bayonne? Poitiers? Harfleur? Rouen? Soissons? Rheims? Amiens? Boulogne? Calais?

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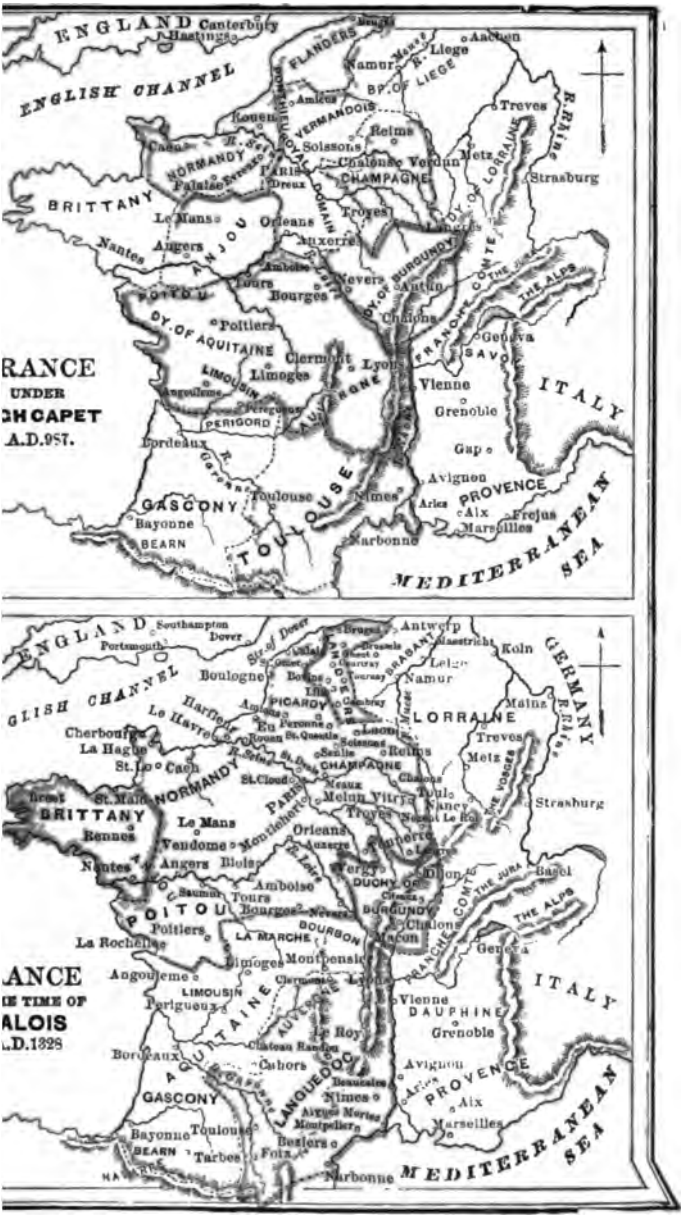
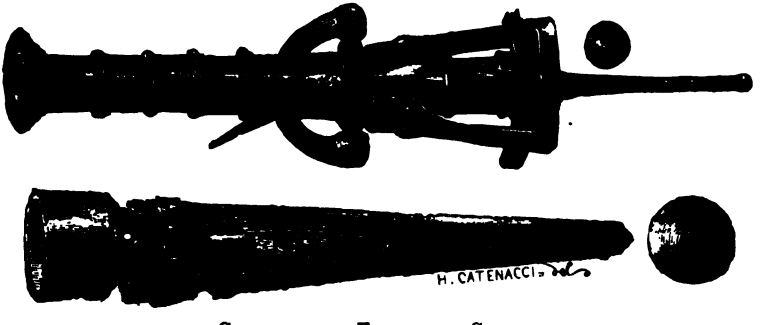
* "Many died in the streets; others were left alone in their houses—but the fact of their death was known by the smell. Often, husband and wife, son and father, were laid on the same bier. Large ditches had been dug, in which the corpses were heaped by hundreds, like bales in a ship's hold. Every one carried in his hand strong-smelling herbs. The air stank with the dead and dying, or with infectious *drugs.* Alas! how many fine houses remained empty! How many fortunes with-

Nos. 13 & 14.


ENGLAND
Canterbury
Hastings
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FLANDERS
Aachen
Liege
Namur
BP. OF LIEGE
Amiens
Rouen
VERMANDOIS
Treves
R. Rhine
Caen
NORMANDY
Soissons
Reims
Chalons
Verdun
Metz
Strasburg
Palaise
PARIS
Dreux
CHAMPAGNE
DY. OF LORRAINE
BRITTANY
Le Mans
Orleans
Troyes
Langres
Nantes
Angers
ANJOU
Auxerre
Amboise
Tours
Nevers
DY. OF BURGUNDY
Autun
THE JURA
THE ALPS
POITOU
Bourges
Poitiers
DY. OF AQUITAINE
Chalons
FRANCHE COMTE
Geneva
SAVOY
RANCE
UNDER
GH CAPET
A.D.987.
Clermont
Lyons
Limoges
LIMOUSIN
Angouleme
Vienne
ITALY
Grenoble
PERIGORD
Bordeaux
Gap
Avignon
PROVENCE
Toulouse
Nimes
Arles
Aix
Frejus
Marseilles
GASCONY
Bayonne
BEARN
TOULOUSE
Narbonne
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ENGLAND
Southampton
Dover
Portsmouth
Antwerp
Brussels
Maestricht
Koln
GERMANY
Boulogne
Namur
Leige
GLISH CHANNEL
Harfleur
Le Havre
PICARDY
Cambray
LORRAINE
Mainz
Cherbourg
Eu
Peronne
Rouen
St. Quentin
Soissons
Treves
La Hague
Reims
Metz
St. Lo
Caen
NORMANDY
St. Cloud
CHAMPAGNE
Chalons
St. Malo
BRITTANY
Le Mans
Meaux
Melun
Vitry
Toul
Nancy
Strasburg
Rennes
Montlehery
Troyes
Orleans
Vendome
Auxerre
Nantes
Angers
Blois
Vergy
Dijon
Basel
Amboise
DUCHY OF BURGUNDY
Saumur
Tours
Bourges
Nevers
POITOU
Poitiers
BOURBON
Chalons
THE JURA
THE ALPS
La Rochelle
LA MARCHE
Macon
Geneva
Limoges
Montpensier
ANCE
IE TIME OF
ALOIS
A.D.1328
Angouleme
Clermont
Lyons
ITALY
LIMOUSIN
Perigueux
Vienne
DAUPHINE
Grenoble
Le Roy
Bordeaux
Cahors
Avignon
PROVENCE
GASCONY
Nimes
Aix
Marseilles
Bayonne
Toulouse
Beziers
BEARN
Tarbes
Foix
Narbonne
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

24. John (*le Bon—the Good*). During this reign the English, under the Black Prince, again invaded France, and the memorable battle of Poitiers was fought, in which John was taken prisoner, and no less than 2500 of the French nobility and chivalry were slain. The king being carried to England, his eldest son, Charles, became regent, and during his administration the people, under Marcel', head of the municipality of Paris, made a desperate struggle to curb the despotic power of the monarch and obtain a

Poitiers.



CANNON OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

share in the government. The States-General were assembled, and granted the privileges demanded; but these being afterward annulled, an insurrection broke out which raged for some time, but was terminated by the death of Marcel, and the defeat of the popular cause. Cannon commenced to be used about this time.

Popular insurrection.

25. At the same time a frightful insurrection of the peasantry burst forth, caused by the hopeless misery in which

out heirs! How many lovely ladies, how many amiable young persons, dined in the morning with their friends, who, when evening came, supped with their ancestors!" —*Boccaccio.*

This terrible epidemic broke out in China, and carried off, it is said, twenty-four millions of the inhabitants. It appeared in Italy in 1346, and spread thence into France, Spain, Germany, and England, also, later, into Sweden and Norway; and, in 1351, it frightfully desolated Russia and Poland.

they had been so long kept by the nobles. This revolt is called the *Jacquerie* (*zhak-re'*), from Jacques Bonhomme (*zhak bon-om'*), the name derisively applied to a French peasant. The feudal castles were sacked and destroyed by the insurgents, and their inmates, of every age and sex, put to death with shocking barbarity. Being at last defeated in an attack upon one of the towns, the peasants were hunted down on all sides like wild beasts, and massacred by thousands; so that some of the rural districts were almost depopulated, and presented a ghastly scene of ruin and desolation (1358).*

Jacquerie.

26. In the mean time, John, being a prisoner in England, in order to obtain his release, consented to surrender a large part of his territories; but to this the States-General would not submit; and Edward III. again invaded France, but finally made peace, consenting to release John upon more reasonable terms. The latter, after four years' captivity, finally returned to his kingdom, and was greeted with universal transports of joy and gratitude by his people; but his son Louis, who had been delivered to the king of England as a hostage, having escaped, John was so conscientious that he surrendered himself again to his English captors, and died a short time after his arrival in England (1364). He had previously (1363) given to his favorite son Philip the duchy of Burgundy in reward for his bravery at Poitiers; and thus was founded that

John.

Burgundy.

* "Not only did the peasants butcher their lords, but they tried to exterminate the families of their lords, murdering their heirs. And then would these savages tuck out themselves and their wives in rich habiliments, and bedeck themselves with glittering but bloody spoils. Yet were they not so savage as not to march with a kind of order, under banners, and led by a captain chosen from among themselves, a crafty peasant, called Guillaume Callet. These bands consisted mostly of the meaner sort, with a few rich burgesses and others. 'When they were asked,' says Froissart, 'for what reason they acted so wickedly, they replied, they knew not, but they did so because they saw others do it; and they thought by this means they should destroy all the nobles and gentlemen in the world.'"—*Michelet's History of France.*

famous ducal line of Burgundy which continued more than a century, and played so important a part in French history.

27. Charles V., surnamed *the Wise*, succeeded his father, and, by means of his prudent measures, did much to restore peace and prosperity to his kingdom. He was himself of an unwarlike disposition, being fond of study, and having a talent for statesmanship rather than for the conduct of military affairs. He raised to the office of Constable of France the famous Du Guesclin (*ga-klang'*), one of the greatest generals of his age. Although defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Nav-ar-re'te by the Black Prince, Du Guesclin, after the death of that great leader, pursued an almost uninterrupted career of victory against the English, depriving them of nearly all their possessions in France. Charles founded the Royal Library at Paris, and was a generous patron of literature and art. He died in 1380, two months after the death of the Constable Du Guesclin.

Du Guesclin.

Royal Library.

28. Charles VI., son and successor of Charles V., was about twelve years of age at his father's death; and accordingly his uncle, the Duke of Anjou, was made regent. Disturbances were occasioned by the efforts of the people to release themselves from the unjust and oppressive taxes which had been imposed by Philip the Fair and his successors; and at Paris an insurrection occurred, which was with much difficulty subdued. An expedition was undertaken to reduce the Flemings, who had revolted against their ruler, Count Louis of Flanders; and the terrible battle of Rosebecque (*rose'bek*) was fought, in which the celebrated Flemish leader Philip Van Artevelde (*ar'te-veld*) was defeated and slain, and no less than 25,000 of the brave Flemings perished (1382). The French king himself was present in this battle, but his army was commanded by Oliver Clisson (*klees'song*), Constable of France, a man of great talents and distinction. This great victory

Regency.

Flemings.

strengthened the power of the king; and the French towns, which had made resistance to the royal exactions, being obliged to submit, all their citizens who had been prominent in the popular movement were put to death without mercy. In Paris alone 300 were led to the scaffold, martyrs to the cause of popular freedom (1382).

29. Some years after this, Charles VI. became afflicted with insanity, from which he never entirely recovered; and while France, in consequence of this calamity, was a prey to every species of disorder, Henry V. invaded it, took Har'fleur, and penetrated into the country. On his retreat, he was surprised at Agincourt; but, though obliged to give battle at great disadvantage, he gained a decided victory (1415). This was followed by the taking of Rouen and the conquest of Normandy; when, finally, the treaty of Troyes was made, according to which Henry married Catharine, daughter of Charles VI., and was, on the death of the latter, to become king of France (1420). This shameful treaty was ratified by the States-General, but was never carried into effect, for Henry died some months before the death of Charles VI. (1422).

Harfleur.

FORTIFIED GATE OF A FRENCH TOWN IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Treaty of Troyes.

30. Charles VII., surnamed the *Victorious*, was crowned at Poitiers; but Henry VI. of England had already been proclaimed king of France, in accordance with the treaty of Troyes. The Duke of Bedford, the English regent, gained a great victory over the army of Charles, consisting partly of Scotch and other auxiliaries (1424). This dreadful disaster to Charles was followed (1428) by the siege of Or'leans, the last stronghold of his

Defeat of Charles.

party, while no hope was entertained by the French of being able to repel its assailants. The deliverance of Charles was, however, effected by one of the most extraordinary occurrences recorded in history. Joan of Arc, a simple peasant girl, had been told of a prophecy, to the effect that France could be delivered from its enemies only by a virgin; and she became impressed with the idea that to her had been divinely committed the task of effecting this great object. She also said she heard voices that told her this. She soon induced others to believe in the truth of her mission, among them the king and his chief officers, and was admitted into Orleans, arrayed in armor, and provided with a train of attendants (1429).

Joan of Arc.

CATHEDRAL OF RHEIMS—(COMPLETED IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY).

31. Under her leadership, the French attacked the English with renewed courage, and soon compelled them to raise the siege. She next urged the king to march to Rheims (*reemz*), in order to assume the crown of his ancestors according to the accustomed rites; and, partly under her leadership, the French, after several vic-

French successes.

torious battles, reached the city, which the English were compelled to surrender; and the king was crowned in the great cathedral (1429). Joan then declared her mission ended, and wished to be dismissed; but her services being still demanded, she remained in the army; and a short time afterward fell into the power of the English, and was burnt to death at Rouen on a charge of sorcery (1431).* Nothing, however, was gained by the English from this cruel execution of the "Maid of Orleans;" for they continued to suffer defeat until they finally lost all their French possessions except Calais; while the Duke of Burgundy, who had previously supported them, became reconciled to Charles VII. The latter reigned till his death (1461).

Fate of Joan.

Defeat of the English.

FEUDAL CASTLE IN FRANCE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

32. Louis XI., who succeeded his father, has been called the *Tiberius of France* on account of his deceitfulness and cruelty. The last years of his father's life had been embittered by his unnatural conduct, for Louis was repeatedly found plotting against him. With such terror was the king inspired on this account, that he was even afraid to take food lest he might be poisoned; and, it is said, he died for want of sustenance. The great object which the new king set about to accomplish was the enlargement of the royal authority by weakening the great feudal vassals. This

Character.

* "When she felt the flames rising around her, she besought the priest who attended her to leave her. The Cardinal of Winchester, and even the Bishop of Beauvais, who had been her bitterest enemy, could not conceal their emotion. After her death two of the judges who had condemned her exclaimed, 'Would that our souls were where we believe hers is!' and Fressart, the secretary of Henry VI., said, as he left the place of execution, 'We are all lost; we have burned a saint!'"—*Guizot's History of France.*

soon excited their determined resistance; and a coalition was formed against him, called the *League of the Public Good* (1465), of which the ruling spirit was Charles the Bold, afterward Duke of Burgundy. A war ensued, in which Louis was defeated, and thus was compelled to grant the concessions demanded by the nobles. These, however, he afterward revoked, and, one by one, at last succeeded in reducing the vassals to submission.

League of the Public Good.

33. The greater part of this reign is occupied with dark intrigues against his enemies, particularly against Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy. The latter was utterly defeated, in two great battles, by the Swiss, whose country he had invaded; and the next year he suffered another defeat from the Duke of Lorraine', at Nan'cy, where he was slain (1477). Louis took advantage of these circumstances to re-annex Burgundy to his dominions. The death of Charles the Bold ended the long resistance of the great French vassals to the central power of the monarchy. Mary of Burgundy, the daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, still remained mistress of Flanders, and Louis desired to marry her to the Dauphin (the eldest son of the king); but she refused her consent, and accepted the hand of Maximil'ian, son of the Emperor of Germany, and Archduke of Austria (1477). This marriage increased the influence of the house of Austria, and led to a rivalry between France and the empire which lasted nearly two centuries. As Louis grew old, he became very superstitious and cruel; and, at last, conscious of being universally abhorred, he shut himself up in a castle, which he kept constantly defended by armed troops. His death occurred in 1483.*

Charles the Bold.

Mary of Burgundy.

Death of Louis.

* "As he felt his disorder increasing, he shut himself up in a palace near Tours, to hide from the world the knowledge of his decline. His solitude was, like that of Tiberius at Capreæ, full of terror and suspicion, and deep consciousness of univer-

34. Charles VIII. was a mere boy on the death of his father, and a meeting of the States-General was called to decide upon his guardianship. In this meeting the Third Estate made an unsuccessful attempt to obtain some influence in the government. By the marriage of Anne, Duchess of Brittany, Charles annexed that country to France, and thus destroyed the last stronghold of feudal power. The French also for a time obtained Naples by the enforced abdication of Alfonso II. of Aragon (1495); and Charles gained a victory over the allied forces of Venice, Milan, and other states of northern Italy; but these successes were in the end fruitless, and Charles afterward gave himself up to vicious excesses, which ruined his health. His death occurred in 1498. His reign was the last of the house of Valois, and marks the close of the Middle Ages. Louis, Duke of Orleans, succeeded to the French throne.

Third Estate.

Anne of Brittany.

Naples.

State of Society during the Valois Period.

35. France was virtually an absolute monarchy, unlike England, in which the Commons represented in Parliament exercised considerable control over the royal power. In the States-General of France—the grand council of the nation—there was a representation of the three orders, the nobles, the clergy, and the Commons, the latter being called the *Tiers Etat* (Third Estate). This

Government.

sal hatred. All ranks, he well knew, had their several injuries to remember: the clergy, whose liberties he had sacrificed to the See of Rome; the princes, whose blood he had poured upon the scaffold; the parliament, whose course of justice he had turned aside; the commons, who groaned under his extortions, and were plundered by his soldiery. The palace, fenced with portcullises and spikes of iron, was guarded by archers and crossbow-men, who shot at any that approached by night. Few entered his den; but to them he showed himself in magnificent apparel, contrary to his former custom, hoping thus to disguise the change of his meager body. He distrusted his friends and kindred, his daughter and his son, the last of whom he had not suffered even to read or write, lest he should too soon become his rival. No man ever so much feared death, to avert which he stooped to every meanness, and sought every remedy."—*Hallam's Middle Ages.*

assembly, however, did not regularly meet, and was entirely subordinate to the royal authority. The first convocation of this body took place during the reign of Philip IV. (1302), this event serving to mark the prevailing influence of civil institutions over the military forms of feudalism.

Tiers Etat.

36. In the assembly of 1357, the Third Estate came into conflict with the royal authority; and, at every subsequent convention, the proceedings showed a spirit of resistance to the corruptions and tyranny of the court, from which resulted measures of great advantage to the people. The States-General of 1484 demanded that these assemblies should be called at regular periods, and that taxes should be levied equally upon all classes. The effect of these measures, however, was not lasting; the king only convoked the States-General when he pleased, and the nobles and clergy together could always outvote the Commons. Hence the people, during the troubled period of the English wars, made but little improvement in their political condition.

Contests with the Commons.

37. At the opening of the States-General, it was the custom for the king to be present, and to make a short speech, after which the Chancellor of France explained at length the purposes of the session. The nobles and clergy remained seated and covered, while the Commons stood with bare heads. After a reply to the Chancellor, from the president of each order, the three orders retired to their several rooms. When the deliberations were complete, they again convened, and presented to the king their wishes, demands, or complaints, in the form of suggestions. The king made no reply; and the assembly, after voting a pecuniary tax, separated. Thus it will be seen that the States-General was not a legislative body, all laws being made by the king, who could listen or not to the demands of his people.

States-General.

38. Schools scarcely existed at this time. Scholars wandered about, giving instruction to such pupils as they could collect. The methods of teaching were of the rudest description, and the discipline was brutal in the extreme. The University of Paris was one of the most noted seats of learning in the world, being attended by students from all parts of Europe. Astrology was a favorite science at this period, the influence of the stars upon human affairs being almost universally believed. The Royal Library of Paris was founded by Charles the Wise, who was a generous patron of literature and art. The fine arts had made little or no progress beyond the barbarism of the dark ages.

Education.

Learning.

Art.

39. The drama was confined to the *Mysteries* and *Moralities*, the former representing incidents in sacred history. In 1385, at the marriage of Charles VI. and Isabel of Bavaria, a play was acted before the royal pair, entitled "The History of the Death of our Saviour," which lasted eight days, having eighty-seven characters, the chief of whom was St. John. A similar *Passion Play* is still performed in Bavaria. In 1402, the king granted letters-patent to some of the citizens of Paris to form an association to represent the *Mystery of the Passion.* This is the origin of the modern tragedy in France; as the performance of the *Moralities* or *Moral Plays* is of the comedy.

The drama.

40. At the siege of Arras, in 1414, use was made for the first time of muskets, then called *hand-cannons.* Playing-cards were improved, games of cards having been introduced to amuse the unfortunate Charles VI. during his lucid intervals. The figures on the cards were the same as now used. The hearts signified the churchmen; the spades (pike-heads), the nobles or military; the diamonds (tiles), the working-class; and the clubs (clover-leaves), the peasantry. About 1420, painting in oils was introduced, before which time all pictures were in water-colors. Louis XI.

Inventions.

favored trade and commerce of every kind, encouraged the new art of printing, endowed a school of medicine at Paris, and inaugurated a postal system. An attempt was also made to light the streets of the capital.

Commerce.

41. Various changes occurred in the style of dress during this period. Charles VII. revived the fashion of long and loose garments; but, during the reign of Louis XI., a total revolution took place, the ladies laying aside their long trains and sleeves, and assuming in their place broad borders of fur, velvet, or silk. In the reign of Charles VI. the head-dress was of extraordinary breadth; subsequently it was very high—sometimes more than three feet. Peaked shoes of great length were also a singular feature of the costume.

Costume.

42. The dwellings of the rich were sometimes furnished with great splendor. We read of the "fine linen of Rheims," which was sold at an extravagant price; and of fabrics made of "silk and silver tissue." Rich carpets and tapestry, and other articles of furniture spoken of, give evidence that means were not wanting for luxurious living and for the gratification of expensive tastes. Stone was used in constructing the basements of houses, the upper portions being constructed of wood. In the richer kind of houses, the front was adorned with projecting corner-posts, covered with carvings of figures—foliage, animals, heads of angels, etc. The castle had its cellar, wine-vault, bakery, fruitery, laundry, special rooms for glass, salt, furs, and tapestry; while near the guard-room and beyond were the porters' lodges and various other buildings, used by servants and retainers.

Houses.

43. During this period, Paris was often the scene of dreadful tumult; and at times the mortality was fearful. In 1438, there were 45,000 deaths in the city. Wolves prowled through the streets, and often carried off children. Famine and pestilence were frequent visitants and

Paris.

Topical Review.

EMINENT PERSONAGES.

Who were they?
At what period did they live?
With what events connected?

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What resulted therefrom?

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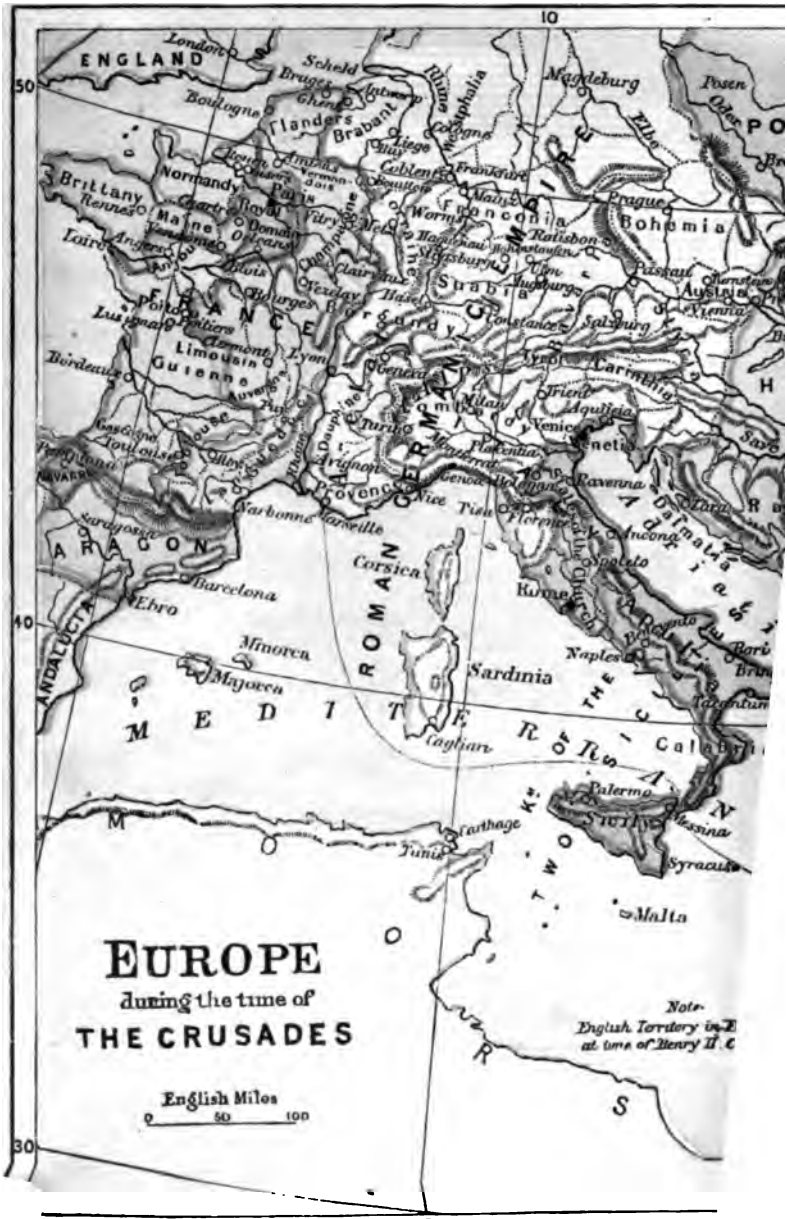
EUROPE
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THE CRUSADES
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English Territory in E
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ENGLAND
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Coblentz
Frankfurt
Normandy
Brittany
Rennes
Paris
Royal
Domain
Vitry
Metz
Worms
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Prague
Bohemia
Ratisbon
Passau
Austria
Vienna
Loire
Angers
Anjou
Chartres
Orleans
Champagne
Clairvaux
Vezelay
Bourges
Burgundy
Suabia
Augsburg
Constance
Salzburg
Poitiers
Lusignan
Limousin
Clermont
Lyon
Bordeaux
Guienne
Auvergne
Geneva
Tyrol
Carinthia
Trient
Aquileia
Venice
Venetia
Milan
Turin
Dauphine
Rhone
Avignon
Provence
Genoa
Bologna
Ravenna
Pisa
Florence
Ancona
Spoleto
Rome
Naples
Bari
Tarentum
Calabria
Dalmatia
Adriatic
Narbonne
Marseille
Nice
Corsica
Sardinia
Cagliari
Barcelona
Ebro
Minorca
Majorca
ARAGON
ANDALUCIA
Saragossa
Pamplona
NAVARRE
Gascogne
Toulouse
Bordeaux
Lyon
Rhone
Dauphine
Provence
Genoa
Nice
Florence
Rome
Naples
Palermo
Sicily
Messina
Syracuse
Malta
Carthage
Tunis
MEDITERRANEAN
ROMAN GERMAN
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Dnieper
Danube
PONTUS
Semlin
Orsova
Danube
Nicopolis
BULGARIA
Nissa
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Bosporus
Constantinople
Chalcedon
Nicaea
Halys
Sivas
Angora
Thessalonica
Gallipoli
Dorylaeum
Hellespont
Philadelphia
Philomelium
Antiochia
Iconium
Taurus
Malatia
Edessa
Smyrna
Ephesus
Athens
Corinth
Rhodes
Patara
Pamphylia
Attalia
Tarsus
Antioch
Seleucia
Tripolis
TRIPOLIS
Limasol
K. of CYPRUS
Candia
Candia
SEA
Sidon
Tyre
Acre
Damascus
Tiberias
Bozra
Jerusalem
Joppa
Ascalon
Gaza
K. of JERUSALEM
Damietta
Alexandria
Mansurah
Cairo
Barka
EGYPT
20
30

CHAPTER VI.

THE CRUSADES.

1. THE Crusades were religious wars which, during the Middle Ages, were waged by the Christian nations of the West against the Mohammedans of the East. From an early period, it had been deemed by the Church an act of piety to make a pilgrimage to Palestine to visit the various places which Christ had hallowed by his

Cause.

CRUSADERS.

presence, and to pay devotion to the sepulcher in which his body had been entombed. The Saracens, who conquered Palestine in the seventh century, had respected these Christian pilgrimages, and rather assisted than opposed those who made them, allowing them to build a church and a hospital at Jerusalem.

2. But when the Seljuk Turks took possession of Syria and captured Jerusalem (1076), the pilgrims were treated with the most shocking cruelty and insult; and the news of

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GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XV.

What was the situation of: ICONIUM or ROUM? EDESSA? ARMENIA? SYRIA? ANTIOCH? JERUSALEM? CYPRUS? Nice? Edessa? Antioch? Aleppo? Tripolis? Damascus? Jerusalem? Describe King Richard's route to Jerusalem in 1191.

these atrocities excited the deepest indignation throughout Christendom. The Byzantine emperors, first taking alarm, appealed to the Christian monarchs of the West; and Pope Gregory VII. had entertained the idea of sending aid to the Emperor Manuel, in accordance with his earnest supplication, as early as 1073. It was not, however, until Peter the Hermit, on returning from Palestine, depicted the dreadful sufferings of the Christians in that country, that any effective measures for relief were taken.

Seljuks.

Peter the Hermit.

3. This religious enthusiast was a native of Am'i-ens, in France, and animated all who listened to his preaching with the same burning zeal against the infidels as had filled his own soul on witnessing their atrocities. Pope Urban II. soon took up the cause; and two councils were held, at the second of which, at Cler-mont', in France (1095), the Pope himself delivered an impassioned address to a vast multitude of both clergy and laymen. His exhortation was greeted with the cry of "God wills it!" which burst simultaneously from every one present. The war was, accordingly, agreed upon; and all who entered into it were directed to wear, as a badge, a cross of red stuff attached to the shoulder. Hence these wars were called *Crusades.*

Urban.

PETER THE HERMIT.

FIRST CRUSADE.

4. From all parts of Europe thousands hurried, at the summons of the Pope, to take part in what was regarded as the holy war; and, in the spring of 1096, no less than 275,000 men, consisting in great part of the dregs of the population, were on their way to Palestine. Peter himself commanded a great multitude; but the first

First Crusade.

detachment, under Walter the Penniless, was cut to pieces by the Bulgarians, only a small band reaching Constantinople, where it was joined by the forces of Peter.* This undisciplined multitude engaged the army of the Turkish sultan on the plains of Nice, but were defeated with great slaughter. A third and fourth expedition of the same kind shared a similar fate.

Walter the Penniless.

5. But the real Crusaders soon arrived at Constantinople. These consisted of six armies of veteran soldiers, commanded by the most skillful and experienced generals of the age: Godfrey of Bouillon (*boo-yong'*), Duke of Lorraine; Hugh the Great, brother of Philip I., king of France; Robert, son of William the Conqueror of England; Count Robert of Flanders; Bo'he-mond, Count of Tarentum, with his cousin, the noble and illustrious Tancred; and Count Raymond of Toulouse. The number of their forces was about 600,000 men.

Crusading armies.

KNIGHTS TEMPLARS.

6. Having defeated Sultan Sol'yman, and captured Nice, his capital (1097), they proceeded to Syria, and took Antioch (1098), after a siege of seven months. During this siege, thousands perished, and Peter the Hermit and multitudes of others deserted the ranks of the Crusaders and returned home. After routing an immense army of Mohammedans, sent by the Persian

* "On reaching a plain at the base of a mountain, the peasant-pilgrims found themselves face to face with countless foes. Walter halted, formed his men, and did all that a brave and sagacious leader could do under the circumstances; but his skill was exerted in vain. Surrounded on all sides by superior numbers, and shrinking from the perils they had defied, the Crusaders lost heart and energy. At first, indeed, the conflict was fierce, and the carnage fearful; but ere long every hope expired, and, with Christian blood flowing around him like water, Walter fell in the midst of his foes, transfixed with arrows and covered with wounds."—*Edgar's Crusades and Crusaders.*

sultan to the assistance of the sultan of Roum, the Crusaders marched to Jerusalem, on reaching which they found their army reduced, by war, famine, and pestilence, to 40,000 men.* After a siege of six weeks, this city surrendered (1099), and Godfrey of Bouillon was unanimously elected king.† A short time afterward, he defeated the sultan of Egypt, with a vast army, at Ascalon.

Jerusalem taken.

7. The kingdom of Jerusalem thus founded was gradually extended till it embraced the whole of Palestine. The greater part of Asia Minor was restored to the Eastern Empire. Bohemond was made Prince of Antioch, and Baldwin, the brother of Godfrey, was made Prince of Edessa. At Jerusalem were founded the two famous orders of the Knights Hospitallers of St. John and the Knights Templars, for the defense of the Holy Sepulcher. For nearly fifty years, the three Latin principalities in the East maintained themselves against the Mohammedan power, and increased in influence and wealth. Thus Jerusalem became the capital of an important Christian state.

Succeeding events.

KNIGHT HOSPITALLER.

* When the Crusaders first came in sight of the Holy City, their emotion was intense. Some leaped and shouted; some threw themselves on the earth and kissed it; some gazed and wept. Their dreadful toils and sufferings were all forgotten in the supreme joy of that moment, in which their fondest wishes were realized.

† "When the chiefs met to choose a king for the realm which they had won with their swords, one man only, Godfrey of Bouillon, appeared, to whom the crown could fitly be offered. But in the city where his Lord had worn the thorny crown, the veteran leader, who had looked on ruthless slaughter without flinching and had borne his share in swelling the stream of blood, would wear no earthly diadem, nor take the title of king. He would watch over his Master's grave and the interest of his worshipers, under the humble guise of Baron and Defender of the Holy Sepulcher; and as such, a fortnight after his election, Godfrey departed to do battle with the hosts of the Fatimite Caliph of Egypt."—*Cox's Crusades.*

Second Crusade.

8. The Second Crusade was excited by the dangers to which the Christians of Syria were exposed from the conquering arms of a Turkish Emir, named Nou-red-din′, who, having been appointed governor of Aleppo, had so increased his power, that he became master of all the territory between the Tigris and the Nile. He had defeated the Franks at Antioch, and taken Edessa, and now threatened the destruction of all the Christian kingdoms in Syria. This crusade was preached by the celebrated St. Ber′nard, Abbot of Clairvaux (*clare-vo′*), in Champagne, who was distinguished for his learning and devotion. Two immense armies, numbering over a million of men, under Louis VII., king of France, and Conrad III., emperor of Germany, the most powerful monarchs of Europe, marched for the Holy Land (1147). But, owing to the base treachery of Manuel Com-ne′nus, the Greek emperor, the armies met with a long series of disasters; and, after a fruitless attempt to take Damascus, the expedition was abandoned, only a small remnant of the numerous host returning to Europe, the greater part being slain, and the rest left captives among the Turks.

Cause.

Armies.

Result.

9. After this defeat of the Christians, Noureddin found himself more powerful than ever. He continued his attacks upon Jerusalem, but they were successfully repulsed. He next turned his attention to the Fatimite caliph of Egypt, sending to the court of Cairo two emissaries, one of whom was the renowned Saladin, more properly Salah-Eddin, who succeeded in getting possession of the viziership of Egypt, when, finding himself really master of the government, he abolished the Fatimite dynasty, and declared the reunion of Egypt with the orthodox caliphate of Bagdad. This was intended as a step to the government of the whole Mohammedan world, to which he aspired; and, as leading to that, he resolved to subdue the Christian kingdoms of Palestine.

Noureddin.

Saladin.

Third Crusade.

10. Saladin invaded Palestine with a large army, defeated the Christians in a great battle, captured the smaller towns, and laid siege to Jerusalem, which surrendered after a resistance of two weeks (1187). This event created a great sensation in Europe, and led to the Third Crusade, preached by William, archbishop of Tyre, who left Palestine to carry the news of the subjugation of the Christians to the people of the West. Frederick Bar-ba-ros'sa, emperor of Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard I. of England promptly announced themselves leaders in the great expedition. Others followed their example. The emperor set out first (1189), but was drowned while crossing on horseback the river Calycad'nus, in Cilicia. His army joined the forces of the other two monarchs at Acre, which city, after a long siege of nearly two years, was compelled to surrender, though Saladin made every effort to relieve the defenders (1191). No less than nine battles were fought, and more than 100,000 Christians perished during this siege.

Christian defeat.

Third Crusade.

Events.

11. Richard and Philip having quarreled, the latter returned to Europe; but the former led his forces to Ascalon, and defeated Saladin, but was compelled to retire from Jerusalem. After accomplishing prodigies of valor, which excited the admiration of the Saracens, he made a treaty with Saladin, to protect the pilgrims from injury and oppression, and set out for Europe (1192). Saladin dying the next year, the unity of his empire was destroyed. The sultans of Egypt, Aleppo, and Damascus became hostile to each other; and the Christians of Syria were left secure in their possessions.

Richard.

Death of Saladin.

Fourth Crusade.

12. The Fourth Crusade was enjoined by Pope Innocent III., without any special exigency such as had brought about the preceding ones, but as a matter of general policy to stimulate Christian feeling, and to foster the opposition to Mohammedan encroachments. Several French and Italian nobles, among whom were Simon de Montfort of France and Count Baldwin of Flanders, offered themselves as leaders; while the Venetians supplied most of the means for equipment, and directed their doge, the aged and valiant Dan'dolo, to accompany the expedition. An immense armament was fitted out at Venice; but before it sailed, circumstances occurred to change its destination.

Cause.

Participants.

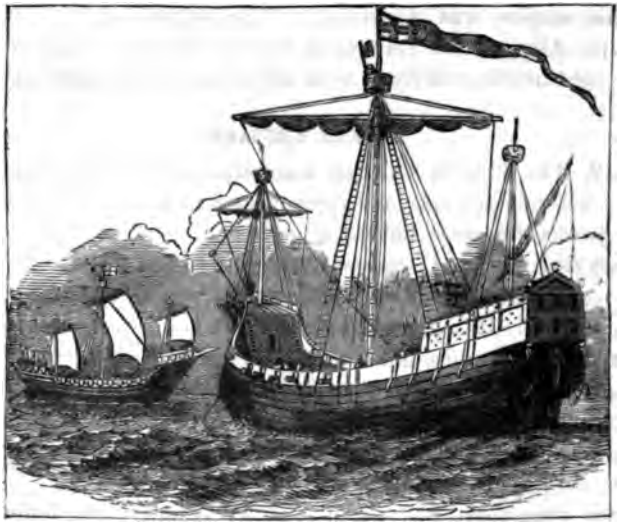
Armament.

13. Ever since the First Crusade, the Greek emperors had excited the suspicion and hostility of the Western Crusaders by their selfishness and perfidy; and at this time the son of a former emperor, who had been deposed, arrived at Venice to solicit assistance in the recovery of the throne. The Crusaders, embracing the opportunity to redress former grievances, and urged also by the Venetians, who desired to establish Western influence in the Greek Empire, as well as to unite the Roman and Greek

Attack on Constantinople.

churches, agreed to direct their forces against Constantinople, thus changing the expedition from a crusade to an attack on a Christian power. Constantinople was besieged, and given up to pillage, and the Greek dynasty was set aside (1204). The Latin dynasty then founded occupied the throne for fifty-six years. The effect of this Crusade was entirely adverse to the general object of these expeditions,

Latin dynasty.



WAR-SHIPS OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

since it tended, by weakening the Greek Empire, to destroy the greatest barrier in Europe to the progress of Islamism westward. The subsequent fall of Constantinople proved this. A little after this, occurred the remarkable expedition called the Children's Crusade. It was preached by a French peasant-boy (1212); and, though the king of France issued an edict against it, thousands of boys embarked for Palestine, all of whom either perished, or were sold into slavery on reaching Alexandria.

Subsequent Crusades.

14. The Fifth Crusade was incited by Pope Innocent III., in 1216, and was joined by people of various nationalities in Europe. They at first led their forces into Egypt, took Damiet'ta, and advanced on Cairo; but were soon afterward glad to obtain the permission of the sultan to retire from the country (1218). The actual Crusade was led by Frederick II., emperor of Germany. It began in 1228, and was terminated by a treaty which the emperor made with the sultan of Egypt. In accordance with this treaty, Palestine was ceded to Frederick, and free toleration granted of both the Christian and Mohammedan faiths. Under this arrangement, the Christians lived in Jerusalem in peace and prosperity, undisturbed until the irruption of the Mongols in the middle of the thirteenth century. The Sixth Crusade was undertaken by Louis IX. (St. Louis) of France (1249), in consequence of the capture and pillage of Jerusalem by the barbarous Mongols. The French monarch, after having taken Damietta, was utterly defeated by the sultan of Egypt, and taken prisoner. He was afterward ransomed by his subjects (1250).

Fifth Crusade.

Sixth Crusade.

15. The Seventh Crusade was undertaken by St. Louis in alliance with Prince Edward (afterward Edward I.) of England (1269), in consequence of the taking of Antioch by the Mam'e-luke* sultan of Egypt. Louis crossed to Africa, expecting to receive the king of Tunis as a convert to Christianity; but, instead of a convert, he found a determined enemy; and a pestilence having broken out, the French perished by thousands on the burning sands. St. Louis died in his tent; and his son

Seventh Crusade.

* The *Mamelukes* (a word meaning, in Arabic, *slaves*) were of Turkish origin, and were bought by the sultan of Egypt and placed in the army. In 1254, they had advanced to such a degree of power, that they made one of their number sultan, and founded a dynasty which occupied the throne of Egypt for centuries.

Philip, after making a treaty with the king of Tunis, returned to France (1270). Prince Edward, however, proceeded to the Holy Land, and gained some advantages by his skill and valor; and after making a ten years' truce, he returned home to ascend the English throne.

16. This was the last of the Crusades. Antioch had been taken by the sultan of Egypt, and all its inhabitants slaughtered or made slaves in 1268; the other towns of Syria soon after fell successively into the hands of the Mohammedans, excepting Acre, which for a time was the metropolis of the Christians. This also was captured by the sultan in 1291, and its inhabitants, to the number of 60,000, put to death or sent into bondage. Soon afterward, all the churches and fortifications of the Latin Christians throughout Syria were demolished.

Influence of the Crusades.

17. These enterprises indirectly contributed very greatly to the political and social improvement of the nations of Europe during the Middle Ages. They tended to break up the feudal system, by compelling the great barons to sell their lands, in order to raise the money necessary to equip their troops and transport them to distant countries. They also aided popular freedom, by inducing kings to grant to the towns political privileges, in return for contributions of money for the same purpose. They encouraged commerce, by employing so many ships and such vast supplies as were required to transport and sustain the vast armies which were raised and sent out to so great a distance. Foreign countries were brought into communication with each other, and the advantage of a mutual exchange of products soon became apparent. Thus the arts of navigation and shipbuilding rapidly advanced, and many cities situated in the route of these expeditions soon acquired extraordinary influence and wealth. Of these Gen'oa and Venice are examples.

On the feudal system.

On commerce and navigation.

18. They promoted the diffusion of knowledge, and the progress of science and literature. Those who engaged in them were at first grossly ignorant and illiterate; but coming in contact with the Greek and Saracenic civilization, they soon imbibed a taste for the science and literature which constituted one of its most prominent features, and, on returning home, communicated the same spirit to their fellow-countrymen. Moreover, they were enterprises undertaken for a noble and unselfish purpose; and although blended with it was the desire of military distinction and renown, this was to be gratified by great self-sacrifice and personal devotion to a cause which conscience and religion approved. Hence were necessarily infused that heroic and disinterested spirit, that eagerness to succor the weak and distressed, that love of romantic adventure, and those elevated sentiments of honor, all of which went to form that remarkable feature of the manners of the Middle Ages known as *chivalry*. (See page 345.)

On science and literature.

On character.

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
The Seljuk Turks take possession of Jerusalem	1076
Council held at Clermont	1095
First Crusade, proclaimed by Pope Urban II.	1095
Peter the Hermit and the Crusaders start for the Holy Land	1096
Solyman defeated, and Nice taken by the Crusading armies	1097
Antioch taken by the Crusaders	1098
Jerusalem taken, and Godfrey of Bouillon elected king	1099
Second Crusade, undertaken by Louis VII. and Conrad	1147
Saladin defeats the Christians and takes Jerusalem	1187
Third Crusade, under Philip II., Richard I., and Frederick Barbarossa	1189
Richard I. set out on his return to Europe	1192
Saladin's death; his empire dissolved	1193
Fourth Crusade, under Baldwin, Count of Flanders	1203
Constantinople taken by the Crusaders	1204
Fifth Crusade, under the Emperor Frederick II.	1228
Sixth Crusade, under Louis IX. (St. Louis), king of France	1249
Antioch taken by the Sultan of Egypt	1268
Seventh Crusade, under Louis IX. and Prince Edward of England	1279
Capture of Acre by the Mohammedans. Total conquest of Syria and subjugation of the Latin Christians	1291

CHAPTER VII.

CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN EUROPE.

SECTION I.

GERMANY.

1. AFTER the battle of Fontenaille, in which the degenerate grandsons of Charlemagne fought with each other over the territories subdued by his wisdom and valor, the empire was divided into three portions—France, Germany, and Italy; and the second of these divisions was assigned to Louis (843). The Carlovingian race became extinct in 911; and thereafter the *Di'et*, or Great Council, consisting of the great princes of Germany and the chief dignitaries of the Church, assumed the right of electing the emperor, subject to confirmation by the Pope, by whom alone he could be crowned. Several races at this time occupied Germany, the chief of which were the Franks, the Saxons, the Bavarians, and the Suabians. The first choice of the electors was Otto the Illustrious, Duke of Saxony; but, he declining, they chose Conrad of Franconia (911). Conrad was a good and wise monarch, but he reigned only seven years, his death occurring in 918.

Divisions of the empire.

Diet.

Races.

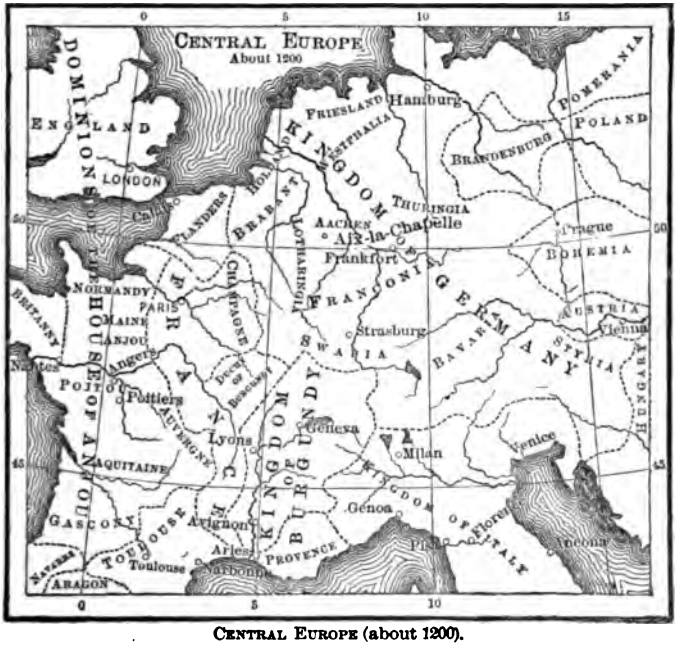
Otto and Conrad.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY. (Map, page 419.)

What is the situation of: GERMANY? KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY? AUSTRIA? HUNGARY? BOHEMIA? BRANDENBURG? POLAND? POMERANIA? SAXONY? WESTPHALIA? FRANCIA? LOTHARINGIA? SUABIA? BRABANT? FLANDERS? FRANCE? Vienna? Prague? Hamburg? Frankfort? Aachen? Strasburg? Milan? Venice? Genoa? Geneva? *Arles? Florence?*

2. Five Saxon emperors succeeded (*Saxon Dynasty*), the first of whom, **Henry I.** (called the *Fowler*),* was a very great monarch. He subdued the rebellious and disorderly princes, and restored peace to the country. Bohemia was made tributary to the German Empire, and the Suabians were subdued. Henry also gained a great victory over the Hungarians, who had swarmed into Saxony;

Henry I.



CENTRAL EUROPE (about 1200).

and so thankful were the people for their deliverance from these savage hordes, that he was hailed as the "Father of his Country" (934).† To this great achievement was added

* He received the title of *Fowler*, because he was flying his hawks on the Harts mountains, when the messengers came to tell him that he had been chosen king.

† "The nine years' truce being ended, the Hungarians sent to the Fowler for blackmail. Blackmail indeed! The only tribute Henry would give them was a

an invasion of Denmark, and the reduction of the sea-kings to submission. His reformatory measures and institutions, both civil and religious, were very important. He died in 936, being succeeded by his son Otho, or Otto.

3. Otto I., (or Otho I.), the *Lion*, on marrying the widow of the king of Lombardy, assumed himself that title, and made the kingdom a fief of Germany. The Hungarians renewed their invasions, but were defeated by Otto in a great battle fought in Bavaria. The Duke of Lombardy having revolted, Otto, at the head of a victorious army, passed the Alps, subdued the rebel duke, and after receiving at Milan the iron crown of the Lombards, was crowned by the Pope Emperor of the West (*Kaiser—Cæsar*), like his great predecessor, Charlemagne (962). He was a zealous patron of letters, having a school in his own palace, though he could neither read nor write. He died in 973. In this reign the Hartz silver-mines were discovered.

Lombardy.

Hungarians.

Crowned emperor.

4. Otto II., called the *Red King*, succeeded his father as "King of Germany and Kaiser of the Holy Roman Empire," being elected by the princes, and crowned by the Pope. His reign was a constant series of wars. He defeated the Saracens in Lower Italy, and made himself master of Naples and Tarentum; but the Greek emperor having invited the Saracens again into Italy, Otto was entirely overwhelmed by them, and narrowly escaped with life. At a diet held in Ve-ro'na, he formally confirmed the privileges of the Republic of Venice; and was preparing a great expedition against the Greeks and Saracens, when he died in Italy, probably from the effects of poison (983).

Saracens.

Venice.

mangy cur, cropped of its ears and tail. The Hungarians were furious; they vowed vengeance, death without mercy, battle without quarter; but vengeance had gone over to the other side. A battle was fought at Meneburg, in Saxony, and the Hungarians were defeated. The massacre was dreadful; the number of prisoners, we are told, was 200,000."—*Brewer's History of Germany.*

5. Otto III. (called the *Wonder of the World*), at the death of his father, was only three years old; and from an early age was the pupil of Gerbert, afterward Pope Sylvester II., one of the most accomplished scholars of his age. It was owing to his extraordinary attainments under this great teacher, that Otto received his title. On commencing his reign, at the age of sixteen, his principal am-

Sylvester.

A Summons to a Town to Open its Gates and Surrender.
(*From an old engraving.*)

bition seemed to be to introduce the customs of the Byzantine court, and to make Rome his capital. By formally acknowledging the Duke of Poland as a separate ruler, he raised the Polish territories to the rank of a kingdom. He died in Italy (1002).

Poland.

6. Henry II. (the *Lame*), cousin of Otto, succeeded him. The Polish ruler having refused tribute and homage to the new kaiser, and, moreover, having annexed Bohemia to his dominions, and invaded the country of the Prussians, Henry, after a war of several years, made a treaty with him, acknowledging the independence of Poland, but retaining Bohemia as a fief of Germany. The Lombards

Henry II.

having revolted, he marched into Italy, and took Pavia, which was burned. He also successfully made war upon the Greeks in southern Italy. He was a very pious king, and in great favor with the Church; hence sometimes called the *Saint*. At his death (1024), the Saxon Dynasty terminated.

Wars in Italy.

7. The *Franconian Dynasty*, consisting of four emperors, succeeded. The first was **Conrad II.**, who, by his marriage, annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire (1033). He made a treaty of peace and friendship with Canute, king of Denmark and England; and, having been crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy, received the submission of all the cities in northern Italy, including Pavia. He also received the homage of the Normans and Saracens in southern Italy. The "Truce of God" (see page 381) was issued during this reign. Conrad died in 1039.

Conrad II.

8. **Henry III.** (called the *Black King*, from the color of his hair) succeeded. In the second year of his reign, the "Truce of God" was substituted for the "Peace of God;"* and the emperor proclaimed that Germany enjoyed a universal peace, for the first time since the monarchy was founded. He gained a great victory over the Hungarians (1044), and made their kingdom tributary to the empire. This great king died in early manhood, after a reign of seventeen years (1056). His son Henry, who had previously received the title of "King of the Romans," succeeded him. This title was subsequently borne by every heir-elect of the empire.

Peace.

Hungarians.

King of the Romans.

* "Henry summoned a diet of the German princes, urged the measure upon [illegible] eloquent speech, and set the example by proclaiming a full and fre[illegible] [illegible] on his enemies. The change was too sudden to be accep[illegible] [illegible] observed as far as convenient; and the Germ[illegible]

9. Henry IV. (the *Great*), a child of five years at the death of his father, assumed the government at the age of fifteen. The extravagance of the court and the haughtiness of the young king caused an insurrection of the Saxons; and Henry, for a time, was compelled to yield to their demands; but finally he marched into Saxony with an immense army, defeated his enemies in a terrible battle, and laid waste their country with fire and sword (1075). His next contest was with the famous Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand). This talented and energetic pontiff aimed to free the Church from its abuses and make it supreme over the civil power, and therefore determined to put a stop to the corrupt sale of ecclesiastical offices by the emperor. Henry, resisting this, was excommunicated; and, in 1077, the greatest temporal monarch in the world was forced to stand barefoot on the frosty earth at Canossa (a town in Italy) for three days, waiting for admission to Gregory, to whom he finally made the most abject submission.*

Saxons.

Hildebrand.

GREGORY VII.

10. But Henry, stung to madness by the humiliation he had suffered, returned to Germany, raised a large army, and conquered Rudolf of Suabia, whom the Pope had caused to be elected in his place. Then passing into Italy, he took Rome (1084), and

Henry's revenge.

* "It was the fourth day on which he had borne the humiliating garb of an affected penitent, and in that sordid raiment he drew near on his bare feet to the more than imperial majesty of the Church, and prostrated himself, in more than servile deference, before the diminutive and emaciated old man, 'from the terrible glance of whose countenance,' we are told, 'the eye of every beholder recoiled as from the lightning.' Hunger, cold, nakedness, and shame had, for the moment, crushed the gallant spirit of the sufferer. He wept and cried for mercy, again and again renewing his entreaties until he had reached the lowest level of abasement to which his own enfeebled heart, or the haughtiness of his great antagonist, could depress him. Then, and not till then, did the Pope condescend to revoke the anathema of the Vatican."—*Sir J. Stephen.*

dered the election of a pope in place of Gregory, whom he declared to be deposed, and drove into exile at Salerno, a town in southern Italy. Here this zealous and able pontiff died (1085); but, notwithstanding his misfortunes, he left the papal power greatly strengthened and improved by his efforts.* Henry IV. reigned till 1106, when he was succeeded by **Henry V.**, called the *Parricide*, because he had deposed his father.† His reign was a constant struggle with the Church and the nobles. He was the last of the Franconian emperors. The crown was next worn by **Lothaire** of Saxony (1125–1137), when it passed into the possession of Conrad of Suabia.

Henry V.

11. Conrad III., the first of the house of Hohenstaufen (*-stow'fen*) or Suabia, had been chosen by the electors in preference to his rival, Henry the Proud, son-in-law of Lothaire. Guelph, the brother of Henry, made war upon the new king, but being defeated took refuge in Weinsburg, which Conrad besieged and took (1140).‡ Unable to resist the eloquence of Bernard, in his passionate appeal for aid in the Second Crusade, Conrad

Henry the Proud.

* "The monk of Cluny, Hildebrand of Savona, who had inspired the policy of four popes, during twenty-four years, became Pope himself in 1073, under the name of Gregory VII. He was a man of iron will and inexhaustible energy, wise and far-seeing beyond any of his contemporaries and unquestionably sincere in his aims."—*Bayard Taylor.* His last words were: "I have loved righteousness, and hated iniquity; and, therefore, I die in exile."

† In the latter part of his life, a curse seemed to rest upon Henry IV. His sons rebelled against him, his wife proved unfaithful; and at last he was compelled to abdicate by his favorite son Henry. A homeless beggar, he wandered from house to house, refused by every one food and shelter. He made his way to Liege, where he was found dead on the door-steps of a religious house from which he had been spurned. As he died under the ban of the Church, his body was denied funeral rites, and for five years lay in a cellar at Liege. In 1111, it was removed to Spires and their buried, the ban having been removed by the Pope.

‡ The city having made an obstinate defense, Conrad determined to burn it to the ground, but gave notice that the women might depart and take with them whatever they liked best. When the gates were thrown open, the women appeared each carrying a husband, a lover, or a son. This moved the king so greatly, that he pardoned the rebels and spared the city. The terms *Guelphs* and *Ghibellines* originated at this time, the former being the password of the rebels, and the latter of Conrad's army.

yielded, and set out for the Holy Land with an army of 60,000 men; but he met with nothing but disaster, and after an absence of two years returned to Germany. He died in 1152. Conrad was never crowned *kaiser*, being only king of Germany.

Second Crusade.

12. Frederick I. (*Barbarossa—Red Beard*) was a great monarch, and was honored with the title of "Father of his Country." In the first year of his reign, he compelled the kings of Denmark, Poland, and Hungary to do homage to him for their crowns; he raised the duchy of Bohemia to a kingdom; and by his marriage obtained possession of Burgundy. He had a difficulty with Pope Adrian IV., but it was soon settled, and he was crowned kaiser in St. Peter's. Frederick's greatest contest was with the cities of Lombardy, which were then emerging into power, and demanded their independence. Although at first defeated, they gained a great victory over Frederick in the battle of Legnano (*lenyah'no*)* (1176); and by the peace of Constance,† gained the right of independent government, though they recognized the emperor as chief ruler (1183). Frederick perished in the Third Crusade (1190).

Principal events.

Lombard cities.

13. The interval between the death of Frederick Barbarossa and the accession of the Hapsburg line (1190–1273), was a period of constant internal commotion and foreign war. The most eminent of the emperors of this period was **Frederick II.**, grandson of Barbarossa, and one of the ablest and most accomplished sovereigns of the Middle Ages. He was compelled, by his obligations to the Pope, to undertake two expeditions to the Holy Land, in the second of which he was successful. Contests with the Italian cities and with the papacy occupied the remainder of his

Frederick II.

* A town in northern Italy, sixteen miles northwest of Milan.

† A town in the southwestern part of Germany, on the northwestern shore of Lake Constance.

reign.* He died in 1250, being succeeded by **Conrad IV.**, whose reign was the last of the house of Hohenstaufen. At his death (1254), he left a son, Conrad, only two years old (called in history *Konradin*—the little Conrad). He received a good education, became a scholar and a poet; and at the age of ten the diet would have crowned him king of Germany, but the Pope opposed it.

Conrad IV.

14. Subsequently, he became the central figure in a pathetic tragedy. After the death of Conrad IV., the Pope claimed Naples and Sicily as being forfeited to the Church, and gave the latter to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., King of France. Manfred, the ruling king, was the uncle of Konradin; and resisting the Pope, was defeated and slain. Konradin determined to avenge the injury to his uncle, raised a considerable force, with which he marched into Italy, and invaded the territory of Naples. He was, however, defeated in battle, and falling into the hands of Charles, was ordered to be executed. Thus perished, at the age of sixteen, the last of the Hohenstaufens (1268). The poet Dante, then a boy of three years, was present at this execution.†

Konradin.

15. Germany could scarcely be deemed a united empire after the Hohenstaufen dynasty. The Italian republics had become practically independent; and the rest of the empire was made up of various states—dukedoms, principalities, bishoprics, etc., loosely confederated together. For seven-

* During the reign of Kaiser Frederick II., the Teutonic knights took possession of Prussia, in order to reduce the heathen people to Christianity. It was afterward united to Brandenburg; and now (1881) the king of Prussia is German emperor.

† Konradin and his friend Frederick of Baden, also a mere youth, were led to the scaffold, while the savage Charles watched the scene from a window of his palace, and the people looked on in gloom and discontent, only prevented from revolt by the royal guards. Konradin, standing on the scaffold, threw his glove among the spectators, that some friend might take it up and avenge his death. Then, exclaiming, "O mother, what sorrow I have caused thee!" he knelt, and received the fatal blow. Frederick and thirteen others were executed with him. In 1282, the massacre of the "Sicilian Vespers" occurred; the French in Sicily were *slaughtered*, and Peter of Aragon became king of the island. (See page 385.)

teen years (1256–1273), there were several who bore the title of Kaiser; but there was, in fact, no reigning emperor. This period, called the Great Interregnum, is one of the darkest in German history. The country was filled with feudal castles, the residences of robber barons, whose quarrels, outrages, and depredations gave the people neither peace nor safety.

Great Interregnum.

16. Rudolph I., the first of the *Hapsburg* * line, was just the man for the position which he was elected to fill. He was an experienced warrior, of determined will and indomitable courage, vigorous in intellect, and of a powerful physical frame. He subdued Ot'to-car of Bohemia, and seized his dominions, including Austria, thus founding the present Austrian Empire. He ruled with much skill and energy; and, reducing the robber nobles to submission, greatly increased the imperial power.† On his death (1291), Albert, his son, was set aside by the electors, and Adolf of Nassau was appointed in his stead; but, a few years afterward, he was deposed, and Albert elected in his place (1298). Adolf, resisting, was slain in battle.

Character.

Ottocar.

Albert.

17. Albert I. was naturally a despot, and cared nothing for the welfare of his subjects.‡ During his reign, the Swiss cantons made their memorable rising for independence, being provoked, according to the popular tradition, by the

* *Hapsburg*, meaning *Hawk's Castle*, was the name given to the stronghold built on the Rhine by the feudal ancestors of this race.

† "In Thuringia, which was perhaps the worst of the haunts, he leveled to the ground as many as sixty-six castles, and put to death twenty-nine of the robber nobles. Some were tied to the tails of their own horses and trampled to death; others were hung on the nearest tree."—*Dr. Brewer.*

‡ His manners and personal appearance were by no means prepossessing. It is said he "looked like a clown and behaved like a loon." He was "big-nosed, loose-lipped, blind of one eye, ill-mannered, grasping, selfish, and overbearing." When Pope Boniface VIII. was told of his election, he exclaimed, "How can such a one-eyed lout be emperor of the Romans!" Indeed, the Pope refused to sanction his election, and excommunicated him; but he afterward became reconciled to the "one-eyed lout."

tyranny of the governor, Gesler (*ghes'ler*), who commanded, as the story goes, the citizens of Al'torf to bow before the ducal cap of Austria, set upon a pole in the market-place. This William Tell refused to do; and was condemned to lose his life, or shoot an apple from his son's head. Although he succeeded in this trying ordeal, the governor still refused to set him at liberty; but a storm arising as he was carried in chains across the lake, he was unfettered, in order that he might render aid as a steersman; when, leaping from the vessel as it neared the shore, he escaped, and a short time after avenged himself and his country by slaying the tyrannical governor (1308).* The emperor himself was murdered the same year in Switzerland by his nephew, John of Suabia.

Swiss cantons.

William Tell.

18. After the murder of Albert, the imperial throne was filled by **Henry VII.** (1308–1313), who released the three Swiss cantons from their allegiance to the house of Hapsburg, and gave Austria to the sons of Albert. The two rival kaisers, Frederick of Austria and Louis of Bavaria, followed, the latter of whom finally triumphed in battle (1322). Louis reigned till his death in 1347; but the year previous he was excommunicated by the Pope; and the archbishops united with the latter in the selection of Charles of Luxemburg; but the free cities and most of the temporal princes stood by Louis. The free cities, of which there were about 150, now rose to great influence and prosperity. They encouraged learning, promoted commerce, and thus contributed greatly to the progress of Germany.

Henry VII.

Frederick and Louis.

Charles.

Free cities.

19. Charles IV., at first opposed by the electors, finally gained the throne. Having been nominated by the Pope without the consent of the electors, he was called the "Pope's

* The story of William Tell is a traditionary legend, the details of which are now believed by many to be fictitious.

Kaiser." He was the grandson of Henry VII., and the son of John, King of Bohemia, who was slain by the Black Prince at the battle of Crecy. Charles possessed great learning himself, and encouraged it. He founded the three universities of Heidelberg, Vienna, and Prague. His most important act was the issue of the "Golden Bull," by which the electors of the German Empire and the mode of election were defined (1356).* The famous Rienzi, "the last of the Roman Tribunes," was arrested by the emperor, and for a time kept a prisoner in Prague. Charles reigned till 1378. The "Black Death" raged during the first years of this reign.

Pope's Kaiser.

Golden Bull.

Rienzi.

20. The death of Charles IV. was followed by the reign of Wenceslas, called the *Worthless* (1378–1400), and Rupert (1400–1410), after whom the crown was conferred on Sig'is-mund of Hungary, a son of Charles IV. (1410), called the "Light of the World." This emperor had been king of Hungary, and was a very accomplished man. It was in this reign that the great Council of Constance met (1414), at which, there being three competitors for the pontifical throne, Martin V. was elected Pope, and the great schism extinguished. The doctrines of Wickliffe were also condemned; and John Huss, rector of the University of Prague, having adopted and preached them, was cited to appear before the Council. Refusing to retract, he was degraded from the priesthood; and having been delivered up to the civil law, was burnt at the stake for heresy (1415). Huss had received from the emperor a safe-conduct; but

Sigismund.

Council of Constance.

Huss.

* The Golden Bull was so called because its seal was inclosed in a gold case. By this instrument the number of electors was prescribed—three prelates and four lay princes; and no appeal was permitted from their decision by a majority vote. They were to meet at Frankfort; and the place of coronation was Aix-la-Chapelle. The college of electors thus constituted lasted, with few changes, 450 years, till the time of Napoleon, who broke up the German Empire.

Sigismund broke his plighted word, in permitting this cruel sentence to be executed. Jerome of Prague, the friend and disciple of Huss, the next year shared the same fate.

Jerome.

21. This led to a furious war of sixteen years, in the first part of which the Bohemians, or Hussites, were led by the famous John Zisca, and defeated the armies of Sigismund in many battles. In 1422, a treaty was made by the emperor, by which the religious liberty of the Hussites in Bohemia was fully acknowledged. The war, however, was afterward renewed, and continued till 1434. While the war was going on, Sigismund marched against the Ottoman Turks, whom he defeated in a great battle near Nissa (1419). By this victory, he not only took vengeance upon those fierce barbarians for his own disastrous defeat at Nicopolis, twenty-three years before, but checked for some time the Ottoman conquests on the eastern frontier. Sigismund died in 1437; and the house of Austria succeeded, which occupied the throne about three centuries (1437–1740).

Bohemian war.

Turks.

22. The short reign of **Albert II.**, the *Illustrious* (1438–1439), was followed by that of **Frederick III.**, the *Pacific*, who, in order to aggrandize the house of Austria,* neglected the general interests of the empire, and suffered the Ottomans, who had taken Constantinople (1453), to make great encroachments upon its territories. He was the last German emperor that was crowned at Rome. He succeeded in effecting a marriage between his son Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy, thus obtaining for the former the sovereignty of the Netherlands, which Mary had inherited from her father, Charles the Bold. Frederick's reign was the longest in German history,

Albert II. Frederick III.

Netherlands.

* Frederick adopted for his device an anagram consisting of the five vowels, A, E, I, O, U, meaning, in Latin, *Austria Est Imperatura Orbi Universa;* or, in English, *Austria's Empire Is Ordained Universal.*

lasting fifty-three years. He was succeeded by Maximilian (1493). During Frederick's reign, printing was invented in Germany (about 1450). With this reign terminates the mediæval period of German history.

Printing.

STATE OF SOCIETY IN GERMANY

During the Middle Ages.

23. From the time of the great German warrior and patriot Hermann, to the reign of Charlemagne, the political history of Germany is almost a blank. Many petty states were formed, each under its own chief; and Christianity was introduced and propagated by English and Irish missionaries, among whom should be especially mentioned the English monk Winifred, afterward named Boniface, and called, on account of his zeal, the "Apostle of the Germans."

Early period.

Christianity.

24. The Feudal System was firmly established in Germany, with the resulting lawnessness and violence that characterized the institution in other parts of Europe. The king or kaiser* was but a nominal sovereign; for many of his vassals were richer than himself and quite as powerful. They only owed their lord military service; and when that was rendered, they were free to do as they pleased. It was not until the close of the Saxon dynasty that Germany was formed into a really organized state, under the rule of laws, and with properly constituted magistrates to execute them. Churches were founded in every part of the country, and there were many walled towns

Feudal system.

Organization.

* The title *kaiser*—emperor—was conferred on Charlemagne when he was crowned Emperor of the West, or Emperor of the Romans. Louis *le Débonnaire* also received the title, and afterward Lothaire, King of Italy. It then passed to the German King Louis, or Ludwig, and next to Charles the Fat, of France, on whose death the empire ceased to exist for abour three quarters of a century. Otto I. received the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, a title borne by all the sovereigns of Germany till the time of Napoleon I. This title is, however, synonymous with Emperor of the West, Emperor of the Romans, or the German title *kaiser*. *King of the Romans* was a title conferred by Henry III. on his son as emperor elect or prospective, and was thus used up to the sixteenth century.

in various parts, some of which were Imperial Free Cities, others ducal towns, and church cities, so called because built on church lands, and having the bishop as chief magistrate.

State of society.

25. Notwithstanding the general spread of Christianity, the state of society was very low. There was but little respect for property or life. Almost any offense, except parricide, sacrilege, or the killing of a master by his slave, could be atoned for by paying a fine, called a *money-bote.* Rough manners and coarse sensuality characterized the people of all classes, until the cities, having acquired a certain degree of independence, increased in industry and thrift. This was promoted by Henry V., who admitted their artisans to the privileges of free burghers. Serfdom was gradually abolished; and, before the end of the thirteenth century, generally gave place to a free peasantry.

Cities.

Serfdom.

Hanseatic League.

26. In the thirteenth century was formed the famous league of cities, called the Hansa, or Hanseatic League, the object being to protect their shipping against pirates, and to extend their commerce. Hamburg and Lubeck were the first to form a union; but Brunswick, Bremen, Cologne, Dantzic, and many other towns soon joined the confederacy, which became very powerful, and exerted an important influence on the civilization and commercial prosperity of Germany. The chief foreign depots of the league were London, Bruges,* Novgorod,† and

* Bruges, the chief city of Flanders, was, in the Middle Ages, the great emporium of central Europe, distinguished not only for its extensive commerce, but its manufactures, particularly of cloths and tapestries. Hallam remarks: "In the thirteenth century, it was said that all the world was clothed from English wool wrought in Flanders."

† "Novgorod, on the banks of the Ilmen Lake, was the glory of Russia during the Middle Ages, with its strong walls, its 250 churches and convents glittering with gilt cupolas, and its 300,000 active citizens, who soon threw off the yoke of the wrangling Russian princes, and constituted themselves into the celebrated republic Later (after 1240), it entered the confederacy of the Hanseatic cities, and became the great emporium of Indian commerce for the north of Europe."—*Koeppen's Middle Ages.*

Bergen.* Its deputies met every three years at Lubeck. The confederacy attained its greatest prosperity and influence in the fourteenth century. Its last general assembly met in 1630.†

27. The peasants or serfs lived in miserable hovels near the castle to whose lord they looked for protection. The townsfolk had wooden houses, with few conveniences, and furnished in the rudest manner. The dwellings of the nobles were huge castles, gloomy and lonesome, built on a high hill or some other almost inaccessible place. The master and his numerous retainers, when not engaged in war and pillage, passed their time in feasting and revelry, interspersed with rough brawls. The women occupied themselves in spinning, embroidery, weaving gold fringe, making banners, etc., or playing on the harp or lute. During the grand banquets and festivals, crowds of minstrels, jugglers, mimics, and clowns flocked to the castle to amuse the guests. Some of the furniture was often rare and costly—fine table-linen from Damascus, and rich tapestry; and their drinking-vessels were sometimes of silver, though usually of horn or earthenware. They had only wooden platters or pewter trenchers, and knives and forks were not used at the table, each person taking up his food in his fingers.

Dwellings.

Employments.

Furniture.

28. The costume of the king and nobles was rich and elaborate. The former, on great occasions, wore a magnificent purple tunic, with a golden girdle, from which hung a sword. On his head was a jeweled cap of crimson velvet, his hair flowing over his shoulders.

Costume.

* A commercial town on the western coast of Norway.

† "Eighty of the most considerable places constituted the Hanseatic confederacy, divided into four colleges, whereof Lubeck, Cologne, Brunswick, and Dantzic were the leading towns. Lubeck held the chief rank, and became, as it were, the patriarchal see of the league; whose province it was to preside in all general discussions for mercantile, political, or military purposes, and to carry them into execution."—*Hallam's Middle Ages.*

The tunic was also worn by the nobles. The shoes were usually long and pointed, often made of purple cloth fringed with gold. Ladies wore very long robes with tight sleeves extending to the wrist, the body fitting close to the waist, and confined by a rich girdle. A wimple was usually worn round the face and chin, fastened at the forehead by a gold or jeweled fillet.

29. All through the gloomy period of the Dark Ages, there was but little of learning or literature in any part of Germany. Charlemagne and a few of his successors took an interest in intellectual culture; but, with the exception of a few histories and poems in Latin, or in some of the German dialects, nothing was written. Among these may be mentioned a Latin chronicle of the world, by Hermann the Cripple,* a scholar of extraordinary genius and learning, who lived in the reign of Henry III. It was a monk named Conrad, in the service of Henry the Lion, who wrote the famous Song of Roland (*Rolands-lied*), in the twelfth century. About the same time (1150–1250), flourished the celebrated *Min'ne-sing-ers*, or "love-poets" — the troubadours of Germany—whose poems aided in the revival of European literature.† The *Nibelungen-lied*, a kind of epic poem in ballad form, belongs to this period. In

Learning and literature.

Conrad.

Minnesingers.

* Hermann was a wonder. His body was wholly paralyzed; he could scarcely hold a pen, or speak intelligibly; yet his learning and sagacity made him an object of universal attention, people coming from different parts of Europe to converse with him. His *Chronicle of the Six Ages of the World* is a valuable work, especially because of its history of Germany during the tenth and eleventh centuries. He also wrote a treatise on music, and one on the *astrolabe*, an instrument used in the Middle Ages for measuring the altitude of the heavenly bodies.

† The name is derived from the old German word *minni*, meaning love. They were contemporaneous with the house of Hohenstaufen, the kings of which line spoke the Suabian dialect, the richest and most musical in Germany. The poems of the Minnesingers were not all love-songs, but often commemorated heroic deeds and wonderful exploits. The names of about one hundred and fifty of these poets are preserved. Many princes and knights, Frederick II. for example, were proud to be classed among them.

the fifteenth century arose in the cities the *Meistersingers*, a kind of literary society or guild, whose compositions were chiefly of a humorous or satiric character. Hans Sachs, one of these, a shoemaker by trade, was the most distinguished German poet prior to the Reformation.

Meistersingers.

30. In the fifteenth century a stronger light began to prevail. During the long reign of Frederick the Pacific, there were many learned men eminent in various branches of science and literature, among whom may be mentioned Nicholas of Cusa (1401–1464), the son of a fisherman, who became one of the greatest scholars of his age; John Müller (1436–1476), considered the restorer of astronomy; and Rudolf Agric'ola (1443–1485). Toward the end of the century, Copernicus, the reviver of the true theory of the solar system, was born; and Albert Durer commenced to be famous as a painter and engraver. The invention of printing gave an impulse to learning and literature which it had never before received. The credit of this invention is contested by the Dutch in favor of Laurens Coster of Harlaem (1423), and by the Germans in behalf of John Gutenberg of Mentz (1436).*

Eminent men.

ALBERT DURER.

Invention of printing.

* Gutenberg, in 1450, entered into partnership with John Faust, or Fust, the latter furnishing the means of utilizing the invention; and the work for printing the Bible in Latin was partly executed, when the partnership was dissolved, in 1455. The next year, Gutenberg completed the printing of the Bible; and in the mean time, Faust entered into partnership with Peter Schoeffer, his son-in-law, and also printed books. Coster seems to have been the first to invent the method of impressing characters on paper by means of blocks of carved wood, in 1423; while Gutenberg invented movable types, and Schoeffer, in conjunction with Faust, first founded types of metal. Thus Gutenberg is entitled to be considered the inventor of printing, and Schoeffer of type-founding. Faust was merely a patron, as he only furnished the means to carry on the work.

Emperors of Germany,

From Conrad I. (911) to Maximilian I (1493),

Line.	Name.	Date of reign.
	Conrad I.	911- 918
Saxon Dynasty.	Henry I.	918- 936
	Otto I.	936- 973
	Otto II.	973- 983
	Otto III.	983-1002
	Henry II.	1002-1024
Franconian.	Conrad II.	1024-1039
	Henry III.	1039-1056
	Henry IV.	1056-1106
	Henry V.	1106-1125
House of Hohenstaufen.	Lothaire II.	1125-1137
	Conrad III.	1138-1152
	Frederick I.	1152-1190
	Henry VI.	1190-1197
	Two reigns	1197-1215
	Frederick II.	1215-1250
	Conrad IV.	1250-1254
	Interregnum	1254-1273
Various Houses.	Rudolf I. Hapsburg	1273-1291
	Adolf	1292-1298
	Albert I.	1298-1308
	Henry VII.	1308-1313
	Frederick of Austria	1314-1330
	Louis V. of Bavaria	1314-1347
	Gunther	1347-1349
	Charles IV	1347-1378
	Wenceslas	1378-1400
	Rupert	1400-1410
	Sigismund	1410-1437
Austria.	Albert II.	1438-1439
	Frederick III.	1440-1493
	Maximilian	1493

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
Carlovingian race becomes extinct	911
Hungarians defeated by Henry the Fowler	934
Lombardy made a fief of the German Empire	961
Otto the Great crowned Emperor of the West (Kaiser)	962
Lower Burgundy annexed to the Empire of Germany by Conrad II	1033
The Hungarian Empire made tributary to Germany	1044
Bohemia added to the Empire	1045
The king-elect of Germany was styled "King of the Romans"	1056
Saxony invaded and overrun by Henry IV	1075
Rome taken by Henry IV.; Gregory driven into exile	1084
Frederick Barbarossa defeated by the Italians at Lignano	1176
The Italian cities gain their independence by the peace of Constance	1183
Prussia became a part of the German Empire	1230
Execution of Konradin, the last of the Hohenstaufens	1268
Insurrection of the Swiss cantons. Legend of William Tell	1308
The Golden Bull issued by Charles III	1356
Meeting of the Council of Constance	1414
John Huss condemned and burnt at the stake for heresy	1415
The Turks defeated at Nissa by Sigismund	1419
The religious liberty of the Hussites in Bohemia acknowledged	1429
Frederick III. crowned *kaiser* by the Pope	1452
The Bible printed by Gutenberg and Faust	1455

SECTION II.

SWITZERLAND.

31. Switzerland, anciently the land of the Helvetians, who were so terribly defeated by Cæsar, like other parts of the Roman Empire, was overrun by the barbarians. In the fifth century, the Alemanni, Goths, and Burgundians possessed different portions of the country; but, in the next century, these were conquered by the Franks, under whose sway Christianity was generally established. It thus formed a part of the Frankish empire of Charlemagne. After the reign of Charles the Fat, the northern part of Switzerland became a part of the German Empire, and the southern portion was annexed to Burgundy. At first the land was held as a fief by the vassals of the crown; but, in course of time, the towns acquired great influence, some becoming free cities of the empire. The three ancient cantons of Schwytz (*shvīts*), Uri (*oo're*), and Unterwalden (*oon'ter-wal-den*), inhabited by descendants from Swedish immigrants, retained a certain degree of independence.

Barbaric invasions.

Franks.

Towns.

Cantons.

32. Rudolf of Hapsburg, a Swiss baron, when he became emperor, favored the independence of the cantons; but his son Albert pursued an opposite policy, and undertook to annex Switzerland to Austria. The oppression of the Swiss by that emperor led to an uprising of the people and the expulsion of the Austrian bailiffs.* Leopold, the emperor's son, advancing into Switzerland with a

Insurrection.

* The leading men of the "forest cantons," whose dependence upon the empire had been for centuries only nominal, met in convention on the Rutli meadow, and adopted a solemn resolution to drive out the Austrian governors, whom they looked upon as foreign tyrants (1307). To this period belongs the story of William Tell. (See page 428.)

considerable army, was defeated by a small band of Swiss at the narrow pass of Mor'gar-ten (1315). This was followed by a league of the cantons of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, to which others were afterward added; and, in 1352, the confederacy included eight cantons. The Austrians afterward renewed the war, and were again defeated at Sem'pach (1386), in a battle memorable for the devotion of Arnold of Winkelried (*win'kel-reed*), who, when his countrymen recoiled from the serried spears of the enemy, rushed upon them, burying them in his bosom, but making way for the Swiss host behind him.*

Confederacy.

Sempach.

33. In the following century, Switzerland had gained in strength; but it was severely tried by a civil war which broke out among the cantons in 1436. This was followed by a struggle with Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, in which the Swiss gained two decisive victories (1476). The emperor Maximilian renewed the attempt to deprive the Swiss of their independence; but was defeated in six desperate battles (1499). This led to a treaty with Maximilian, by which the independence of the cantons was finally established. This made the Swiss a nation; and, five new cantons being admitted to the confederacy, it assumed the form which it retained for two centuries.

Contest with Charles the Bold.

Treaty.

* The historian Van Müller thus describes the incident: "The hostile lines stood unbroken and firm. Sixty Swiss had already been slain. They feared the sudden effect of some unperceived movement by the vanguard from the rear, or of some surprise by the troops of Bonstetten. This moment of delay and indecision was terminated by a man from the canton of Unterwalden, Arnold Strutthan of Winkelried, knight. He said to his companions, 'I'll make a lane for you,' leaped from out the ranks, called with a loud voice, 'Take care of my wife and children; faithful, dear confederates, remember my race;' rushed upon the enemy, grasped some lances with his hands, buried them in his breast, and, being a very tall and strong man, he pressed them with him to the ground, as he sank down. Instantly his companions threw themselves over his body; and all the hosts of the confederates, in succession, pressed on with the utmost force. The lines of the astonished enemy pressed one upon another to receive them; whereby, through fear, haste, horror, and heat, many lords, wounded in their armor, were suffocated; while large bands, *hastening* from the forests strengthened the forces of the Swiss."

SECTION III.

ITALY.

34. Northern Italy, by the defeat of the Lombards (774), passed under the rule of Charlemagne, who was, in 800, crowned at St. Peter's Emperor of the West, or Emperor of the Romans. After the battle of Fontenaille, it was assigned to his grandson Lothaire (843), whose descendants held the throne nearly fifty years (843–888). This period is noted for the invasion of southern Italy by the Saracens, who carried their victorious arms even to the gates of Rome. They held possession of a large part of the country until they were expelled by the Normans (1016).

Various events.

35. Confusion and civil war followed the close of the Carlovingian dynasty in northern Italy, occasioned by the disputes of ambitious nobles for the throne, until Otto I. of Germany assumed the sovereignty of the country (961). From this period the chief towns rapidly emerged into power and importance. The Lombard League was formed in 1167, and, in 1183, the cities secured their independence by the Peace of Constance. The bitter strife between the Guelphs and Ghibellines devastated the country for centuries, some of the cities favoring the Guelph interest, that is the interest of Italy and the popes against that of the emperor; others the Ghibelline, or imperial interest. Nevertheless, the republics of northern Italy attained a high degree of splendor and prosperity, which they continued to enjoy during the Middle Ages.*

Civil war.

Cities.

* These republics included: 1. The *Lombard Cities*—Milan, Cremona, Pavia, Brescia, Verona, Mantua, Padua, etc.; 2. The *Cities of Romagna*—Bologna, Ferrara, Modena, etc.; 3. The *Tuscan Cities*—Florence, Pisa, Lucca, etc.; 4. *Genoa;* and 5. *Venice.* Some of these cities were in the Guelph interest; others in the Ghibelline. There were frequent wars among these small states, and family feuds in the individual cities, such as that of the Capulets and Montagues in Verona, on which Shakespeare founded his play of *Romeo and Juliet.*

Republic of Venice.

36. Among these republics, Venice occupied a prominent place. Its foundation dates from the invasion of Italy by Attila (452), who pillaged and destroyed the cities of the *Veneti* in northern Italy; and many of the inhabitants, taking refuge among the islands at the head of the Adriatic, founded there a settlement which for a time depended for its subsistence upon fishing and the manufacture of salt. It was called Ve-ne'zia. Between two and three centuries, it was a simple republic; but, in 697, the first *doge* (duke) was elected, an officer in whom was vested almost absolute authority. The republic was nominally subject to the Eastern Empire, and assisted it in defending the Exarchate of Ravenna from the attacks of the Lombards. During the reign of Charlemagne (809), it was attacked by the Franks, but defeated them with great loss. In the course of time, the central island, Rialto (*re-ahl'to*), was connected with the other islands by numerous bridges; and this city of bridges and canals, instead of streets, came to be generally known by its present name, *Venice.* A short time after this, the Venetians took St. Mark as their patron saint, having, as is said, brought his body from Alexandria (829).*

Early history.

Later history.

St. Mark.

37. During the next 250 years, the republic greatly increased in wealth, commerce, and naval power; and its territorial dominions were augmented by the acquisition of Dalmatia, and some of the neighboring provinces. In the First Crusade, the Venetians sent a fleet

Growth.

* "After defeating Pepin, king of Italy (in 809), the Venetians made choice of the largest island, the Riva Alta—*Rialto*—in the center of the Lagoons, where they had secured their families and their wealth, and there they built the city of Venice, the capital of their republic. Some years later, they transported thither from Alexandria, in Egypt, the body of Saint Mark, the Evangelist, whom they chose patron of their state. His winged lion figured in their arms; and under his victorious banner they afterward raised their great colonial empire of the East."—*Koeppen's Middle Ages.*

of more than two hundred vessels to aid Godfrey of Bouillon (1099); and during the whole period of these expeditions, Venice was the great center of commerce, and the emporium by which the silks, spices, and gems of the East were distributed to Europe. It was a prominent member of the League of Lombardy against Frederick Barbarossa; and, during the contest (in 1177), gained a splendid naval victory over the Ghibellines, under Otto, Frederick's son, in defense of the Pope, who had appealed to the republic for protection. It was after this victory that the ceremony of "wedding the Adriatic" was instituted, the Pope presenting the doge with a ring for the purpose. This ceremony was always afterward performed with great pomp and festivity, a ring being cast into the sea, to indicate that it was "subject to Venice as a bride is to her husband."

Wedding the Adriatic.

38. After the taking of Constantinople by the Crusaders (1204), Venice having supplied a fleet, under the venerable Doge Dan'do-lo, received, as her share of the spoils, the Mō-re'a, and several other territories in Europe. The doge, although blind and ninety years of age, so distinguished himself that the Crusaders, in admiration of his prowess and skill, offered him the imperial crown, which he refused. During the latter half of the thirteenth century and most of the fourteenth, Venice was engaged in almost constant war with her great rival, Gen'o-a.

Dandolo.

39. In the latter part of the thirteenth century (1275), Mar'co Po'lo, the great Venetian traveler, crossed Asia, and, after visiting Tartary and China, returned home by way of the East Indies and the Persian Gulf. The account which this traveler gave of the East did much to stimulate further adventure and exploration. After Genoa had passed away as an independent power (1396), Venice experienced her highest prosperity, and was the greatest maritime power in the world. She acquired by conquest, in the beginning of the fifteenth century,

Marco Polo.

Height of glory.

a large domain in northern Italy, and did important service to Europe by repelling the attacks of the Turkish fleets in the Mediterranean. Her wars, however, soon wasted her treasures and impaired her commerce; while her government became tyrannical and corrupt. When the new route to the East, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, was discovered (1497), her glory soon departed.

Decline.

SOUTHERN ITALY.

40. In the ninth century, southern Italy was invaded by the Saracens, against whom it was for a time defended by the armies of the Byzantine Empire. In the next century, Otto II. of Germany, having defeated the Saracens, made himself master of Naples and Salerno, and finally of Tarentum. This so alarmed the Greek emperor, that he formed an alliance with the Saracens; and, in the severe battle of Crotona, utterly defeated Otto, who with difficulty escaped from the hands of the victors. The Saracens held many of the most important places in southern Italy until they were expelled by the Normans, in the eleventh and twelfth centuries.

Saracens.

41. These were a band of adventurers from Normandy, who at first rendered aid in expelling the Saracens from Salerno (1016). Being joined by others, they soon made a lodgment in the delightful regions of southern Italy, repeatedly defeating the vastly more numerous forces of the Eastern Empire. Their numbers were increased by constant accessions from Normandy; and, in 1060, the renowned Robert Guis'card (or *ghees-kar'*) was acknowledged by the Pope Duke of Apu'lia and Calā'bria, and of such other lands, in Italy and Sicily, as he might rescue from the Greeks and Saracens. This Norman duke was, perhaps, the most accomplished soldier of his age; and extended his conquests throughout southern Italy, thus *putting* an end to the long dominion of the Eastern emperors.

Normans.

Guiscard

42. He subsequently raised an immense army, officered by Norman knights, and attacked the other territories of the Eastern Empire. Durazzo (*doo-rat'so*) fell, after a siege of seven months, before his invincible skill and valor; and thence he marched his army into the heart of the empire, making Constantinople itself tremble. He was, however, hastily recalled to Italy to protect Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) against his inveterate foe, Henry IV. of Germany; and, raising a large army, he marched rapidly from Salerno to Rome, and compelled the German emperor to seek safety in retreat. It was with the faithful Robert Guiscard that the illustrious pontiff at last found an asylum at Salerno.

Conquests of Guiscard.

Hildebrand.

43. Roger I., the brother of Robert Guiscard, conquered Sicily from the Saracens after several years of war; and his son, Roger II., ruled over the Norman possessions in both Sicily* and Italy, and subjugated the free cities of Naples and Amal'fi† (1127); but, in the person of William II., his grandson, the Norman dynasty became extinct, and the kingdom passed under the sway of the German emperors (1189). Thus it remained till the reign of Manfred, whom Charles of Anjou defeated in the battle of Beneven'to (1266), and thus obtained the throne of Naples and Sicily, which he retained till the dreadful massacre of the Sicilian Vespers (1282). By this event he lost Sicily; but transmitted Naples to his descendants, who retained the throne of that country till 1435, when it passed to the kings

Roger Guiscard.

End of Norman rule.

Anjou rule.

* Roger Guiscard was crowned king of the Two Sicilies at Palermo. He brought artisans from Athens, and founded a silk manufactory in that city in 1146.

† A town on the Gulf of Salerno, southeast of Naples, noted for its extensive trade in the Middle Ages. "This little republic rose, reached the height of its power, and declined, between the sixth and twelfth centuries. Its career as a free trading state was brilliant till checked by the arms of Roger Guiscard, king of Sicily, from which time its splendor was lost."—*Yeats's Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce.*

of Aragon, who had ruled Sicily from the time of the Sicilian Vespers.

44. Rome, or **Papal Italy**, was governed after the eighth century by the Popes, who, in succession, were elected to fill the chair of St. Peter. During a period of sixty-eight years (from 1309 to 1377) the Pope's residence was at Avignon, in France. Rome, in the mean while, was the scene of constant disorder from the lawless acts of the great nobles, who prosecuted their family feuds with the utmost fury and license. Out of these struggles arose Rienzi (*re-en'ze*), the "Last of the Tribunes," who, in 1347, seized the chief power, and, having expelled the nobles, endeavored to restore the ancient liberties of the city. A counter-revolution overturned his government after an existence of but seven months, and he was driven into exile. Rienzi was a friend of the famous poet Pe'trarch, and was distinguished for his learning and oratory.* Ancona, in Papal Italy, was one of the most important commercial cities in the peninsula at this period.†

Condition of Rome.

Rienzi.

Ancona.

* "Never perhaps has the energy and effect of a single mind been more remarkably felt than in the sudden, though transient, reformation of Rome by the tribune Rienzi. A den of robbers was converted to the discipline of a camp or convent: patient to hear, swift to redress, inexorable to punish, his tribunal was always accessible to the poor and stranger; nor could birth, or dignity, or the immunities of the Church protect the offender or his accomplices. The privileged houses, the private sanctuaries in Rome, on which no officer could presume to trespass, were abolished; and he applied the timber and iron of their barricades in the fortifications of the capitol. . . . In this time (says the historian), the woods began to rejoice that they were no longer infested with robbers; the oxen began to plow; the pilgrims visited the sanctuaries; the roads and inns were replenished with travelers; trade, plenty, and good faith were restored in the markets; and a purse of gold might be exposed without danger in the midst of the highway. As soon as the life and property of the subject are secure, the labors and rewards of industry spontaneously revive; Rome was still the metropolis of the Christian world; and the fame and fortune of the tribune were diffused in every country by the strangers who had enjoyed the blessings of his government."—*Gibbon.*

† "Ancona, in the Papal States, was founded by the Syracusans about four centuries before Christ, and has ever been, next to Venice, the most considerable port on the Adriatic coast of Italy. Its early eastern trade was chiefly with Cyprus."—*Yeats.*

State of Society in Italy

During the Middle Ages.

45. The innumerable invasions and revolutions to which Italy was subjected in the Middle Ages, introduced vast changes not only in the political condition of the country, but in the manners and customs, the arts, occupations, and language of the people. Out of the barbarism resulting from this ruin and disorder, a new civilization slowly emerged, having its origin and principal growth in the cities, particularly those of the north. The Lombard rule was, on the whole, favorable to this improvement. The feudal system prevailed, but it acquired a more exact and legal form in Italy than in other parts of Europe.

Changes.

New civilization.

Feudal system.

46. The great commercial cities, Venice, Genoa, Florence, Ancona, and Amalfi, were the gateways not only of imported commodities, but of the civilization of the countries with which they were brought into communication. Manufactures were extensively carried on in all the cities of northern Italy; being in some the chief source of their wealth. In Florence this was especially true. Dyeing, and the making of cloth, scarlet stuffs, silk fabrics, tapestries, straw hats, with artistic work in mosaic, metal, and alabaster, were prominent industries. Lombard capitalists competed with the Jews as bankers and money-changers in every important city of Europe. Venice had, also, very numerous and extensive manufacturing industries.

Commerce and manufactures.

47. Architecture in Italy gradually passed from the old classic style to the Gothic; but this mode of building did not progress as rapidly in this as in many other parts of Europe. The splendid palaces and mansions erected in Florence, Bologna, Genoa, and other cities, show wonderful taste and genius in this branch of art. The works

Architecture.

of the Roman architect Vi-tru'vi-us * were printed at Rome in 1486; and the adoption of his system by the Italian architects led to the arrangement of the Five Orders of Architecture.

48. Many Byzantine artists passed into Italy, and introduced their various styles of painting and sculpture, thus laying, in the thirteenth century, at Venice, Pisa, and other cities, the foundation of the Italian schools of art. Sculpture, under Nicola Pisano (*ne'ko'lah pe-sah'no*),† took the lead in this age. The revival of painting, in the latter part of the thirteenth century, was greatly promoted by the celebrated Cimabue (*che-mah-boo'a*) (1240–1300),‡ of Florence; but Italian painting more properly begins with the next century. Giotto (*jōt'to*) (1276–1336) was eminent not only as a painter, but an architect and a sculptor. In the fifteenth century, the fine arts made great progress, particularly in Florence, under the sway of the Medici. Leonardo da Vinci (*vin'che*)§ painted his great picture, "The Last Supper," at the close of the mediæval period (1497). He was noted for the universality of his genius.

Painting and sculpture.

49. The Italian literature dates from the thirteenth century, previous to which time there were dialects more or less

* Vitruvius, or more properly Marcus Vitruvius Pollio, lived in the time of Augustus, by whom he was greatly admired and patronized as an architect. He wrote an elaborate work, *On Architecture*, arranged in ten books. A second edition of this work was printed at Florence in 1496, and a third at Venice in 1497. It treats in detail of the four orders of architecture.

† Pisano, born about 1200, inaugurated the revival of sculpture in Italy. He executed many magnificent works not only in sculpture, but in architecture. He died in 1278.

‡ Giovanni Cimabue took the lead in the restoration of painting. Having studied under Byzantine masters, he soon laid aside their fixed, traditional methods, and by boldly adopting the style dictated by his own genius, gave life and individuality to his works. His church frescos were much admired. He is called by some "the father of modern painting." Giotto was his greatest pupil.

§ Leonardo da Vinci was born at Vinci, near Florence, in 1452. He was eminent not only as a painter, but as a sculptor, architect, engineer, and scientist. His pictures are classed with those of Raphael and Michael Angelo, who lived in the succeeding period. He died in 1519.

closely resembling the Latin language, such as the Tuscan, the Venetian, the Neapolitan, etc. Of these, the Tuscan might claim a superiority in many respects.

Literature.

Classical Italian literature commenced in Florence under the influence of the Troubadours; and the common language began to take the place of Latin. Among the writers of this century, Dante (*dan'ta*) (1265–1321) may justly be given pre-eminence. This world-renowned poet had political as well as literary distinction, being the chief magistrate of his native city, Florence. He was, however, banished by its factious citizens; and while living in exile wrote his great poem, the *Divi'na Comme'dia,* published just before his death.

Dante.

50. A little later, Pe'trarch (1304–1374) wrote his *Sonnets,* classed among the most melodious and beautiful compositions in the Italian language; and in the same period Boccaccio (*bok-kat'cho*) (1313–1375) wrote the romances and tales called the *Decam'eron,* noted for its elegant style. The fourteenth century is deemed the greatest era of Italian literature; in the next, flourished the poet Ar-i-os'to (born in 1474), the author of the romance poem *Orlan'do Furio'so,* and the famous statesman and author Macchiavelli (*mak-e-ah-vel'le*), born in Florence (1469). The latter part of the century was enriched by the galaxy of genius that encircled their great patron at Florence, Lorenzo de' Medici, styled the *Magnificent.* The first printing-press was set up in Italy in 1465.

Noted writers.

51. At the end of the tenth century, was born Guido (*gwe'do*) of Arezzo (*ah-ret'so*), who is considered the father of the modern system of music. He invented the staff and the art of solfa-ing, and greatly improved the system of musical notation in use in his time.*

Music.

* "The tradition is, that while chanting a hymn in honor of St. John, he was struck with the gradual and regularly ascending tones of the opening syllables of each hemistich in the three first verses, and discerned at once their fitness for a

Italy and Germany took the lead in music during the remaining periods of the Middle Ages, as they have continued to do in subsequent times.

SECTION IV.

Spain and Portugal.

52. On the conquest of Spain by the Saracens, the Christians, who were the remnant of the Visigothic kingdom, took refuge in the mountainous districts of As-tu'ri-as, and founded a new kingdom under their leader Pe-la'yo. For centuries they and their descendants waged an almost incessant warfare upon the Mos'lems, or Mohammedans; and new kingdoms came into existence as the country was gradually recovered. Of these, Ar'a-gon and Castile (*cas-teel'*) were the chief. In 1212 these different kingdoms combined their forces, and gained at To-lo'sa* one of the greatest victories ever achieved by the Christians over their Moslem foes.

Christian kingdoms.

Tolosa.

53. After this battle the Saracen power rapidly declined, and that of Castile and Aragon steadily increased. The most celebrated of the Castilian monarchs were Al-fon'so X., noted for his learning, and particularly for his love of astronomy (1252–1282); Peter the Cruel, a contemporary of Du Guesclin and the Black

Castile and Aragon.

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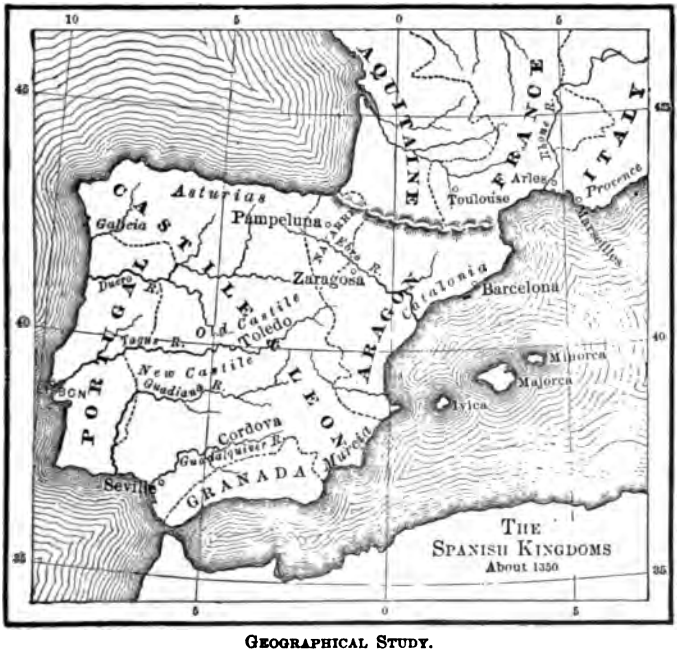
system of solfeggio. On introducing his new theory to the choir, it proved eminently successful, and was gladly adopted. The words of the hymn in Latin are:

	English.
Ut queant laxis	*Ut*-tered be thy wondrous story
Re-sonare fibris	*Re*-prehensible though I be,
Mi-ro gestorum	*Me* make mindful of thy glory,
Fa-muli tuorum,	*Fa*-mous son of Zebedee;
Sol-ve polluti	*Sol*-ace to my spirit bring,
La-bii reatum,	*La*-boring thy praise to sing."
Sancte Johannes.	

* Tolosa is in the northern part of Spain, on the Bay of Biscay.

Prince; and Henry, his successor, who was defeated at Navarrete (*nah-var-ra'ta*) by the Black Prince, and deposed. The smaller kingdom of Aragon acquired extensive foreign possessions, the chief of which were Sicily, Naples, and Sardinia. Under the reign of Ferdinand the Catholic, who married Isabella, queen of Castile, both these kingdoms were united (1479); and from this date commenced the real greatness of Spain.

Union.



GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What was the situation of: ARAGON? CASTILE AND LEON? GRANADA? NAVARRE? PORTUGAL? OLD CASTILE? NEW CASTILE? ASTURIAS? GALLICIA? CATALONIA? Zaragosa? Barcelona? Pampeluna? Toledo? Cordova? Seville?

54. Ferdinand for ten years carried on a fierce war against the Moorish kingdom of Granada (*grah-nah'dah*), in southern Spain, the only remnant of the Saracenic power in the Penin-

sula. After a long siege, the famous fortress Alhambra was surrendered; and Boabdil, the "last of the Moors," was allowed to retire, his subjects being free to sell their property and leave Spain, or to remain under their own laws, customs, and magistrates, but tributary to Castile (1492). The Jews, however, were expelled; and Ferdinand, in thus driving out thousands of his most industrious and enterprising subjects, inflicted a severe blow on the prosperity of the kingdom. The year 1492 is also memorable for the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, who had sailed under the patronage of Queen Isabella.

War with Granada.

Conquest of the Moors.

Columbus.

PORTUGAL.

55. This kingdom was previously a part of Castile; but, in 1095, King Alfonso VI. granted it to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, who was to rule as a vassal. Henry's son and successor, Alfonso, gained a great victory over the Saracens, and, throwing off his allegiance to Castile, made Portugal an independent kingdom (1139). This led to a fierce contest with Castile, which lasted for a long time; but ended in favor of the Portuguese, who were governed for more than two centuries by the descendants of Alfonso, whom they had chosen for his virtues and his valor.

Early history.

Independence.

56. Alfonso III. extended the kingdom to its present limits, by the conquest of Al-gar've, the most southern province, which he wrested from the Moors, after a contest of three years (1252). During the reign of John, Prince Henry, the Navigator, one of the wisest and best men of his age, planned and directed several voyages in order to explore the coast of Africa, and discover a passage around it to the Indies. Under John II., Bartholomew Diaz (*de'az*) reached the "*stormy* cape" at the extremity of the continent (1486), to

Prince Henry.

Diaz and Da Gama.

which the king of Portugal gave the name of Good Hope; and, in 1497, Vas'co da Ga'ma doubled this cape, and succeeded in sailing to India. This voyage and that of Columbus revolutionized the commerce of the world.

Progress of Civilization in Spain and Portugal.

57. The greatest advancement in civilization reached in these centuries was during the dominance of the great Moorish kingdom, the center of which was at Cordova. Reference has already been made to this (see page 331). Christian civilization did not begin to make any progress of importance till the reign of Ferdinand; and, therefore, an account of it properly belongs to the period of modern history. The last twenty years of the fifteenth century were distinguished by the maritime enterprises of the Portuguese; and Spain became identified with maritime discoveries even more astounding. Barcelona was noted for its extensive commerce during the whole period of the Middle Ages.

Moors.

Christians.

Maritime discovery.

58. In Spain, as in Italy, there were various dialects spoken in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, besides the native Basque language and the Arabic. The modern Spanish language is based upon the old Castilian dialect, in which were written the earliest specimens of Spanish literature, consisting of heroic ballads and romances, mostly relating to the exploits of the Cid, the most renowned of the legendary heroes of Spain; also a rhymed chronicle of this personage, written in the thirteenth century. The earliest prose writers were monks and priests. In the reign of Alfonso X., there was a great literary revival; the king himself wrote several poems, and caused translations of foreign works to be made into Castilian. There were many Castilian writers in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, but neither Spanish nor Portuguese literature reached any important development till a later period.

Language and literature.

CHAPTER VIII.

SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE.

1. IN connection with the history of the Eastern Empire, reference has been made to several conquering races that, from time to time, invaded its dominions, with varying success; as the Bulgarians, Magyars or Hungarians, Slavonians, Russians, and Turks. Some of these succeeded in establishing independent states that existed for a longer or shorter time, among which the most important were Bulgaria, Servia, Hungary, Bosnia, and, finally, the great Ottoman Empire, into which most of them were absorbed. Of each of these a brief sketch will here be given.

Races.

States.

BULGARIA.

2. The Bulgarians, a Turanian race, emigrated in two divisions from their homes near the Caspian Sea, one founding a power (Great or White Bulgaria) on the Volga River, and the other passing, in the fifth century, to the west, where finally they established a kingdom (Black Bulgaria), in 680. This latter branch of the race had come into collision with the Avars and Slavs, and been assimilated by the latter to such an extent, that this western Bulgarian power is historically Slavic, or Slavonic.* Christianity was introduced into this kingdom in the middle of the ninth century. In the latter

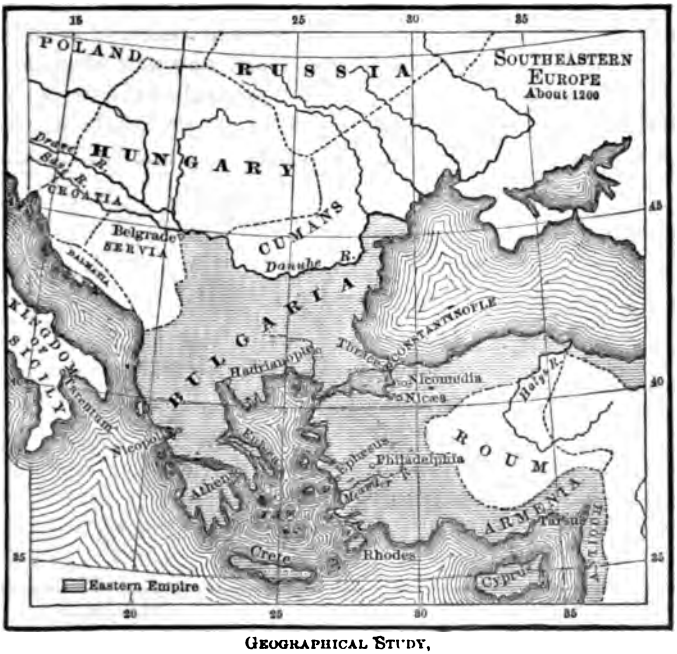
Bulgarians.

Bulgaria.

* "The modern Bulgarians bear the Bulgarian name only in the way in which the Romanized Celts of Gaul bear the name of their Frankish masters from Germany, and in which the Slavs of Kief and Moscow bear the name of their Russian masters from Scandinavia. In all three cases, the power formed by the union of conquerors and conquered has taken the name of the conquerors, and has kept the speech of the conquered."—*Freeman's Historical Geography of Europe.*

part of this century, the Bulgarian Kingdom was overturned by the Russians.

3. In the middle of the tenth century, there was a great revival of the Greek power; and Bulgaria was re-annexed to the empire, making the Danube again its boundary; and



GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What was the situation of: BULGARIA? HUNGARY? SERVIA? ROUM? Where were the Cumans? What was the extent of the Eastern Empire? What was the situation of Belgrade? Hadrianople? Nicomedia? Nicæa? Ephesus? Philadelphia?

thus it remained for more than two hundred years. Then a revolt occurred, and a second Bulgarian kingdom was formed, extending southward to Thessaly and Epirus; but this was again subdued by the empire in the eleventh century (1018). Once more was the Bulgarian kingdom revived by an insurrection against the

Second and third kingdoms.

imperial authority (1187), and retained its independence till its conquest by the Ottomans, in the latter part of the fourteenth century, after their great victory at Cossova (1390).

SERVIA.

4. The country that received this name was under Byzantine rule till the early part of the seventh century, when it was devastated by the Avars, who were afterward driven out by a Slavonic race called the Serbs, or Servians. These people had been living previously in the

Early history.

SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE AND ASIA MINOR 1354 A.D.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What were the situation and boundaries of: SERVIA? BULGARIA? WALLACHIA? BOSNIA? CROATIA? Where was the kingdom of Sicily? Hungary? The Dobrutcha? What was the extent of the Eastern Empire at this time? Of the Turkish dominions? To what did Trebizond belong? Armenia? What was the capital of the Greek Empire?

region north of the Carpathian mountains, which they had left at the instigation of the Greek emperor, to give assistance against the Avars. For some time Servia continued in vassalage to the Eastern Empire; but subsequently it became *subservient* to Bulgaria, till the conquest of the latter (1018).

5. It became an independent principality about the middle of the eleventh century (1043), and allied itself to Hungary against the empire; but its ruler was not crowned king until the commencement of the thirteenth century (1217). About the middle of the next century, it made extensive conquests, and soon comprehended Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, northern Greece, and a part of Bulgaria (see map). Its ruler at this time took an imperial crown, with the title of Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks. This was the height of its glory; for under subsequent rulers it fell to pieces; and in the latter part of the century, was overwhelmed by the Ottomans. Servia was not, however, permanently annexed to the Turkish Empire till 1521.

Independent kingdom.

HUNGARY.

6. The Magyars or Hungarians, also a Turanian race, like the Bulgarians, made their way from their home between the mouths of the Dnieper and the Danube rivers, and founded, in the ninth century, a kingdom on the north bank of the latter river (887). They were an active and warlike people; but their bold incursions were repressed, on the east by the Greek Empire, and on the west by the German emperors (934 and 955). From the beginning of the eleventh century, Hungary ranks as a kingdom of Latin Christianity, and after that time it grew in all directions. It made a permanent conquest of Croatia and Transylvania. The Turanian Cumans advanced to the Danube; but, in the thirteenth century, the Mongolian invasion swept them away, and for a time crushed the Hungarian power. The remnant of the Cuman nation continued to exist under Magyar rule, giving to the Hungarian monarch the additional title of King of Cumania.

Magyars.

Kingdom of Hungary.

Mongol invasion.

7. The greatest extension of the Hungarian dominion was in the fourteenth century, during the reign of the Angevin

king, Louis the Great (1342–1382). He took Dalmatia from the Venetians, and reduced Wallachia, Moldavia, Bosnia, and Bulgaria to a state of dependence. In 1370, by right of succession, he became king of Poland, and thus became the ruler of an empire stretching from the Baltic to the Adriatic. On his death, Poland was detached from Hungary; and the latter, by the marriage of Mary, eldest daughter of Louis, to Sigismund, became united to Germany (1411). Hungary was subsequently again independent; and under its heroic kings Hunyadi and Matthias, recovered its strength, and extended its sway.* During the fifteenth century it waged incessant wars with the Ottomans, especially during the first half, previous to the fall of Constantinople.

Louis the Great.

Later history.

Bosnia.

8. Bosnia was formed as an independent state by a Slavic irruption in the seventh century; but it maintained, for a considerable time, only an uncertain and changeful independence. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it was under the Hungarian sway; and, in the next (1339), it passed to the Servian Empire, to which it belonged for some time, when it again became independent (1370). It was under the last Bosnian dynasty, commencing in 1376, on the breaking up of the empire of Servia, that it acquired a real position among European powers; for it promised at one time to take the place of that fallen empire. Its greatness was, however, shattered at Cossova, with other Christian powers; and it finally succumbed to the sway of the Ottomans, becoming a province of their vast empire in 1463, but not permanently annexed to it until 1528.

History.

* "Later in the fifteenth century came another day of Hungarian greatness under the son of Hunyady and Matthias Corvinus. Its most distinguishing feature was the extension of the Magyar power to the west, over Bohemia and its dependencies, and even over the Austrian archduchy. In the southeastern lands, Wallachia and Moldavia again became Hungarian dependencies."—*Freeman.*

Ottoman or Turkish Empire.

9. Of all the different conquering races that poured into Europe from the north of the Euxine or Black Sea, the most terrible were the Turkish hordes, first the Seljuks and then the Ottomans.* The attacks of the Ottomans on the Eastern Empire, and the successive con-

Turks.

Geographical Study.

What were the boundaries of the Ottoman Empire in 1260? What was the situation of Bosnia? Wallachia? Bulgaria? Roumelia? Albania? Morea? Hungary? Slavonia? Croatia? Dalmatia? To whom did Dalmatia belong?

quests which they made of its territories, have already been referred to. The Ottomans were originally a Turkish band who served the Seljuk sultan against the Mongols; and subsequently, as the vassals of that

Origin.

* "Most of these invading races have passed away from history; three still remain in three different stages. The Bulgarian is lost among the Aryan people, who have taken his name. The Magyar abides, keeping his non-Aryan language, but adopted into the European commonwealth by his acceptance of Christianity. The Ottoman Turk still abides on European soil, unchanged because Mahometan, still an alien alike to the creed and to the tongues of Europe."—*Freeman.*

monarch, they became a power in Asia, and soon afterward passed into Europe.

Conquests.

10. When Am'urath, the successor of Othman, had fixed his capital at Adrianople, in the middle of the thirteenth century, he had already in fact hemmed in the Greeks at Constantinople; and, under Bajazet, the first Ottoman prince who bore the title of Sultan, the Ottoman dominions in Europe extended from the Danube River to the Ægean Sea, thus including Bulgaria, Macedonia, Thessaly, and Thrace. Servia and Wallachia were dependent states; and central and southern Greece, with Bosnia, Hungary, and other western lands, were open to the ravages of these Mohammedan conquerors.

Timour the Tartar.

11. But a mightier power than even the Ottomans was at hand to check their career. This was the Tartar horde under Timour, and the great Turkish dominion was for a time broken to pieces.* The Christian states enjoyed a respite from attack, and the sons of the defeated and captive Bajazet were contented to restore to the empire some portions of its lost territory. In the early part of the fifteenth century, the tide of Ottoman conquest turned again; and, under Mohammed the Conqueror (1451–1481), made rapid progress. It was during the thirty years of his reign, especially after the taking of Constantinople, that the Turkish dominion was fully and firmly established as a great power in Europe. [For the extent of its territory in this reign, see map, p. 457.] The further development of this empire will be given in connection with modern history.

Later conquests.

* Timour, or Tamerlane, was born not far from Samarcand. At an early age he rose to great eminence in his native country, and was invested with imperial authority. With insatiable ambition, he aspired to the dominion of the world. After many victories in Persia, Tartary, and India, he turned his attention to the Ottomans who, under Bajazet, were making great conquests. The latter collected an army of 400,000 men; but he met with a terrible defeat, and fled from the scene of the conflict on a fleet horse (1402). He was, however, pursued and captured; and it is said was kept for a time by his conqueror in an iron cage. (See page 310.)

Table of Contemporaneous Events.

A.D.	England.	France.	Other Nations.
732		Victory of Charles Martel.	Period of the Saracen Conquests.
752		End of Merov. dynasty.	
768	The Saxon Heptarchy.	Accession of Charlemagne..	
786			Haroun al Raschid.
800		Empire of the West restored	
814		Death of Charlemagne.	
827	Egbert, King of England		
843		Div. of Charlemagne's empire	Louis Emp. of Germany.
871	Alfred the Great.		
884		Charles the Fat.	
910			Fatimite dynasty begins.
912		Normans settle in France.	
936			Otho the Great.
987		Hugh Capet.	
996		Robert.	
1013	Sweyn.		
1017	Canute the Great		The Normans in Italy.
1031		Henry I.	
1042	Edward the Confessor.		
1055			Seljuks take Bagdad.
1056			Henry IV. of Germany.
1060		Philip I.	Robert Guiscard.
1066	William the Conqueror.		
1076			Turks take Jerusalem.
1084			Hildebrand deposed.
1087	William Rufus.		
1095		First Crusade.	
1100	Henry I.		
1108		Louis VI.	
1137		Louis VII.	
1152			Frederick Barbarossa.
1154	Henry II.		
1176			Battle of Legnano.
1180		Philip II. (Augustus).	
1187			Saladin takes Jerusalem
1189	Richard I.		
1199	John.		
1216	Henry III.		
1223		Louis VIII.	
1226		Louis IX.	
1258			End of Saracen Empire.
1270		Philip III.	
1272	Edward I.		Mongols take Iconium.
1285		Philip IV.	
1307	Edward II.		
1314	Battle of Bannockburn..	Louis X.	
1315			Battle of Morgarten.
1317		Philip V.	
1322		Charles IV.	
1327	Edward III.		
1328		Philip VI.	
1347			Rienzi.
1350		John.	
1364		Charles V.	
1377	Richard II.		
1380		Charles VI.	
1386			Battle of Sempach.
1396			Battle of Nicopolis.
1399	Henry IV		
1413	Henry V.		
1414			Council of Constance.
1422	Henry VI.	Charles VII.	
1453			Constantinople taken.
1461	Edward IV.	Louis XI.	
1483	Edward V. Richard III.	Charles VIII.	

Topical Review.

EMINENT PERSONAGES.

Who were they?
At what period did they live?
With what events connected?

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Peter the Hermit 408, 409
Urban II 408
Godfrey of Bouillon 409
Noureddin 411, 412
Saladin 412, 413
Count Baldwin of Flanders 413
Dandolo 413, 441
Otto the Illustrious 418
Henry the Fowler 419
Otto the Lion 420
Otto the Red King 420
Otto the Wonder 421
Sylvester II 421
Otto the Lame 421
Henry the Black King 422
Henry the Great 423
Hildebrand (Gregory VII.) 423, 443
Frederick Barbarossa 412, 425
Konradin 426
Rudolf of Hapsburg 427, 437
Albert I 427, 437
William Tell 428
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Rienzi 429, 444
Sigismund of Hungary 429
John Huss 429
Jerome of Prague 430
John Zisca 430
Frederick the Pacific 430
Winifred or Boniface 431
Herman the Cripple 434
Hans Sachs 435
Nicholas of Cusa 435
John Müller 435
Rudolf Agricola 435
Albert Durer 435
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Robert Guiscard 442
Roger I 443
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Hunyadi 456
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Bajazet 458

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When did they occur?
What led to them?
What were the consequences?

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Taking of Jerusalem 410
Children's Crusade 414
Captivity of St. Louis 415
Battle of Fontenaille, ... 418, 419
Defeat of the Hungarians 419, 420
Poland made a kingdom 421
Taking of Weinsburg 424
Battle of Legnano 425
Independence of the Italian Cities .. 426
Revolt of the Swiss 428
Growth of the Free Cities 428, 432
Issue of the Golden Bull 429
Battle of Nissa 430
Revolt of the Hussites 430
Introduction of Christianity 431
Union of the Hanse towns 432
Invention of Printing 435
Battle of Morgarten 438
Lombard League 439, 441
Foundation of Venice 440
Discovery of Cape of Good Hope. 442, 450
Battle of Benevento 443
Expulsion of the Jews from Spain .. 450

No. 16.

GREAT BRITAIN (MODERN)
Orkney Islands
Hebrides Is.
SCOTLAND
Inverness
Culloden
Grampian Hills
Aberdeen
BEN NEVIS
Dundee
Glencoe
Perth
Stirling
Bannockburn
Firth of Forth
Dunbar
Falkirk
Preston Pan
Edinburgh
Berwick
Glasgow
Tweed R.
Flodden
Cheviot Hills
Otterbourne
Dumfries
Newcastle
Durham
Carlisle
IRELAND
I. of Man
IRISH SEA
Lancaster
York
Marston Moor
Towton
Preston
Hull
Wakefield
Anglesea I.
Liverpool
Manchester
Newark
Nottingham
Caernarvon
Derby
The Wash
Leicester
Norwich
Bosworth
Shrewsbury
Birmingham
Fotheringay
Naseby
Worcester
Edgehill
Northampton
Evesham
Cambridge
Tewksbury
ST. GEORGES CHANNEL
WALES
ENGLAND
Milford
Cardiff
Gloucester
Oxford
Barnet
Bristol
LONDON
Swansea
Newbury
Windsor
Canterbury
Bristol Channel
Bath
Sedgemoor
Salisbury
Dover
Battle
Taunton
Winchester
Lewes
Exeter
Carisbrook
Shoreham
Portsmouth
CORNWALL
Torbay
I. of Wight
Plymouth
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Bolo

II. MODERN HISTORY.

CHAPTER IX.

ENGLAND,

From 1485 *to the Present Time.*

SECTION I.

THE TUDOR LINE.

1. Henry VII. With the accession of this king the long civil wars, by which the country had been devastated for so many years, were brought to an end. Henry was the son of Edmund Tu'dor and Margaret, a descendant of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. In order to strengthen his title to the throne, and put an end to all dissensions between the rival families, he married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. To remove all competition for the crown, he imprisoned in the Tower the young Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, and grandson of the renowned king-maker.

Descent.

Marriage.

2. The general favor felt toward the house of York occasioned Henry much trouble, and many plots and insurrections

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GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XVI.

What is the situation of: Dover? Portsmouth? Canterbury? Winchester? Salisbury? Shoreham? Windsor? Plymouth? Torbay? Taunton? Exeter? Sedgemoor? Bath? Bristol? Newbury? Gloucester? Cardiff? Milford? Caernarvon? Worcester? Tewksbury? Evesham? Worcester? Edgehill? Naseby? Northampton? Cambridge? Fotheringay? Norwich? Oxford? Bosworth? Shrewsbury? Derby? Nottingham? Manchester? Hull? York? Towton? Marston Moor? Durham? Carlisle? Preston Pan? Dunbar? Stirling? Falkirk? Glencoe? Inverness? Culloden?

were formed against him. A rumor having been circulated among the people that Warwick had escaped from the Tower, an attempt was made to personate him; and for this purpose a handsome youth, named Lambert Simnel, a baker's son, was chosen. The impostor was carried to Ireland, and was there proclaimed king under the title of Edward VI. (1487). The king prevented the insurrection from spreading in England by exhibiting in public the real Earl of Warwick; and the adherents of the impostor, having landed in England, were defeated in a decisive battle by the king's troops (1487). Simnel, being taken prisoner, was pardoned, and was afterward employed as a domestic in the king's household.

Simnel.

3. Five years afterward, a more formidable attempt was made by the enemies of the king to raise a pretender to the throne, by counterfeiting Richard, the younger of the two sons of Edward IV., who were said to have been smothered in the Tower. The person selected for this purpose was a young man named Perkin Warbeck; and so well did he play his part, that Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., acknowledged him as her nephew, and greeted him with the title of the *White Rose of England.** James IV., king of Scotland, also acknowledged him, and gave him the noble Lady Gordon in marriage, and invaded England in order to raise an insurrection in his favor. The attempt, however, failed; and Perkin finally gave himself up, and was imprisoned in the Tower

Perkin Warbeck.

* "Margaret was second sister to King Edward the Fourth, and had been second wife to Charles surnamed the Hardy, Duke of Burgundy, by whom having no children of her own she did with singular care and tenderness intend the education of Philip and Margaret, grandchildren to her former husband; which won her great love and authority among the Dutch. This princess (having the spirit of a man and the malice of a woman), abounding in treasure by the greatness of her dower and her provident government, and being childless and without any nearer cares, made it her design and enterprise to see the Majesty Royal of England once again replaced in her house; and had set up King Henry as a mark at whose overthrow all her actions should aim and shoot; insomuch as all the counsels of his succeeding troubles came chiefly out of that quiver."—*Bacon's Reign of Henry VII.*

(1497). There, becoming acquainted with the Earl of Warwick, he planned with him an escape, but the plot was discovered, and both were executed, Perkin being hanged at Tyburn, and the unfortunate prince beheaded, on a charge of treason (1499). By this act of cruelty, Henry destroyed the last male descendant of the Plantagenets.

4. Henry was a prudent monarch, and very much averse to war, because it prevented the gratification of his ruling passion, avarice. In order to increase his hoards, he resorted to the most unjust and tyrannical exactions. His treasures amounted at his death to nearly two millions sterling—an enormous sum for that period. He died after a reign of twenty-four years, and was succeeded by his son Henry (1509). During the reign of Henry VII., the celebrated navigators, John and Sebastian Cab'ot, set sail from Bristol under a commission from the king, and discovered the mainland of North America (1497). It was not until the year after this that Columbus, in his third voyage, reached the mainland of America. Henry built a large vessel which he named the Great Harry, thus laying the foundation of the English navy.

Wealth of the king.

Cabots.

5. **Henry VIII.**, when he ascended the throne, was only eighteen years of age, and was handsome, affable, and popular. During the first year of his reign, he married Catharine of Aragon, aunt of the Emperor Charles V., to whom he had been betrothed since his eleventh year. This princess had been previously married to his elder brother Arthur, a youth of sixteen years, who died a few months after the marriage. Henry made a special favorite of Thomas Wolsey (*wool'ze*), and advanced him successively to the highest honors, though he was of very humble origin, being, as it is said, the son of a butcher. Wolsey had, however, received an excellent education, and was a man of very great talents. He was afterward made a cardinal by the Pope, and himself aspired to be pope.

Marriage.

Wolsey.

6. Henry joined the league which was formed against France by Spain, Venice, and the Pope; and, having invaded France at the head of 50,000 men, he routed the French in the celebrated Battle of the Spurs, so called from the rapid flight of the enemy (1513). In this campaign, the Emperor Maximilian enlisted in Henry's army, and received pay as one of his subjects and

Defeat of the French.

SHIP IN WHICH HENRY VIII. EMBARKED IN 1520 FOR FRANCE.

captains. In the same year, James IV., king of Scotland, having invaded England with a large army, was defeated by the Earl of Surrey in the battle of Flodden Field; and the king himself, with the flower of the Scottish nobility, was left dead on the field.* The French

Flodden Field.

* The Scots would not believe that their king was slain, asserting that the body which was taken to London and interred as his, was in reality that of one Elphinston, who, to deceive the English, was arrayed in arms resembling the king's

king, Francis I., desirous of effecting an alliance with England, planned a meeting with Henry, which took place near Calais, at what was called, from the gorgeousness of the display made, the "Field of the Cloth of Gold" (1520).

7. Martin Luther having caused great excitement in Europe by the promulgation of his doctrines, Henry VIII., who had been carefully educated in the Roman faith, wrote a treatise against them, and dedicated it to the Pope (Leo X.), who, as a recompense, conferred on the royal author the title of Defender of the Faith (1521). A few years after this, Henry applied to the Pope (Clement VII.) for a divorce from Queen Catharine, professing to have some doubts of the lawfulness of a marriage with his brother's widow; while the real reason was that he desired to marry Anne Boleyn (*an bûl'en*), an attendant of the queen, with whom he had become enamored (1527).

Luther.

Anne Boleyn.

8. Clement, unwilling to grant the request of the English monarch, put him off from time to time, thus keeping him in a state of suspense. The king's anger was first vented upon his great minister, Wolsey, to whose insincerity or neglect he attributed the disappointment of his wishes. Accordingly, the cardinal was dismissed from his high office, banished from court, and deprived of many of his great possessions. Being resolved upon his entire ruin, the king afterward caused him to be arrested on a charge of treason; but death saved the proud cardinal from any further disgrace. Among his last words was the well-known exclamation, "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs!"

Wolsey's fall.

9. By the advice of Cranmer, the great universities of Europe were consulted with regard to the lawfulness of

during the battle. Hence, the populace entertained the opinion that James was still alive, having secretly gone on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and that he would return and take possession of the throne. To this fond conceit they clung for many years.

Henry's marriage; and these having generally decided against it, Cranmer, who had recently been made Archbishop of Canterbury, opened a court to examine the question; but the queen refusing to appear before it, he declared the marriage invalid, and ratified that with Anne Boleyn, who was then formally crowned queen (1533). The Pope having pronounced the judgment of Cranmer illegal, and threatened Henry with excommunication, the Parliament, under the king's influence, confirmed his marriage with Queen Anne, and formally declared him "the only supreme head in earth of the Church of England." By this declaration and other acts of Parliament, the English Church was separated entirely from the Catholic Church (1534). The monasteries were afterward suppressed, and some modifications introduced in the doctrines and forms of religion. This event is known in history as the *English Reformation.*

Divorce of Catharine.

English Reformation.

10. Sir Thomas More, one of the most virtuous and learned men of the kingdom, who had succeeded Wolsey as chancellor, was beheaded for refusing to acknowledge the king's supremacy; and the upright Bishop Fisher was condemned and executed for the same offense (1535).* The king indeed evinced, during the whole of his subsequent reign, a spirit of the most cruel bigotry and persecution. In abandoning his allegiance to the Pope, he by no means became a convert to all the new doctrines of Luther and others against

More and Fisher.

Henry's bigotry.

* "Cromwell's ingenuity framed an act of succession which not only sanctioned the re-marriage, but called on all who took the oath of allegiance to declare their belief in the religious validity of the divorce." It was this oath that More refused to take. "A mock trial was hardly necessary for his condemnation, or for that of Fisher, the most learned among the prelates who had been imprisoned on the same charge in the Tower. The old bishop approached the block with a book of the New Testament in his hand. He opened it at a venture ere he knelt, and read: 'This is life eternal to know Thee, the only true God.' Fisher's death was soon followed by that of More. On the eve of the fatal blow, he moved his beard carefully from the block, 'Pity that should be cut,' he was heard to mutter, with a touch of the old, sad irony; 'that has never committed treason.'"—*Greene.*

the Catholic faith; and while he deprived the churches and monasteries of their possessions, he caused those who dissented from their teachings to be punished without mercy, many being burned at the stake.

11. Less than three years had elapsed after his marriage with Anne Boleyn, when he caused her to be beheaded on a charge of adultery; but he himself seemed to prove her innocence and the wickedness of his own conduct, by immediately marrying Jane Seymour, to whom he had previously become attached. This queen having died a short time afterward, for political reasons he contracted a marriage with Anne of Cleves; but, on seeing her, he was greatly disappointed with her personal appearance, and he soon afterward divorced her. Cromwell, who had arranged the marriage, was executed on a charge of treason. His next choice was Catharine Howard, who, like Queen Anne, was condemned and beheaded on a charge of adultery, but was generally believed guilty. Catharine Parr, his sixth wife, had the sagacity and good fortune to escape his jealous cruelty, and survived him.

Wives of the king.

12. The last victim of Henry's tyranny was the accomplished Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, who was beheaded on Tower Hill, being unjustly condemned for treason (1547). The king survived this event only a few days. Henry VIII. was, without doubt, one of the most remorseless despots that ever reigned; and there were but few of his subjects who did not rejoice at his death. During this reign, the first complete copy of the English Bible was printed, and ordered by the king to be placed in every parish church. It was based upon the translation of William Tyndale, and executed by Miles Coverdale. Henry left three children,—Mary, daughter of Catharine; Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn; and Edward, son of Jane Seymour. The last succeeded him.

Earl of Surrey.

Character.

Bible.

13. Edward VI. was in his tenth year on his accession; and the government was administered with great firmness by his maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset, under the title of Lord Protector. During the first years of this reign, further changes were made in the established religion, and severe laws enacted against those who refused to comply with the liturgy, as contained in the *Book of Common Prayer*, compiled chiefly by Cranmer and Ridley. Some who refused obedience were committed to the flames. The Duke of Somerset was deprived of his office of Protector (1549), and finally executed, through the contrivance of the designing and ambitious Duke of Northumberland, who thus obtained an undisputed control over the king (1552). This nobleman induced Edward to set aside his sisters Mary and Elizabeth, and bequeath the crown to Jane Grey, great-grand-daughter of Henry VII., who was married to Lord Guilford Dudley, a son of Northumberland. Soon after this, Edward died, much lamented for his many virtues (1553).*

Principal events.

14. Mary, in spite of all the efforts of Northumberland, was acknowledged queen; and the unfortunate pair, Dudley and Lady Jane Grey, suffered death upon the scaffold (1554), the queen showing no mercy notwithstanding their youth and innocence. The Lady Jane was one of the most accomplished princesses of her time, having been instructed in Latin and Greek by the celebrated Roger As'cham. She was also possessed of singular amiability, virtue, and piety. Her last message to her youthful husband (for neither of them was over seventeen years of age) was: "Our separation will be only for a moment; we shall soon

Lady Jane Grey.

* "Edward VI., only son of Henry VIII. by his third wife, Jane Seymour, was nine years old when he ascended the throne by the death of the king his father. His majority was fixed at the eighteenth year of his age by the late king's will, but he died before he came to it, after a short reign of six years, five months, and eight days. There was reason to hope extraordinary things from this young prince, had it pleased God to bless him with a longer life. He had an excellent memory, a wonderful solidity of mind, and withal he was laborious, sparing no pains to qualify himself for the well-governing of his kingdom."—Rapin's *History of England.*

meet each other in a place where our affections will be forever united, and where misfortunes will never more disturb our eternal felicity."

15. The cherished object of Mary was to restore the Catholic religion; and, in pursuance of it, she consented to marry Philip of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V. Through an obsequious Parliament, she then caused all the statutes of Edward VI. with regard to religion to be repealed, and the severe laws against heresy to be revived. Cardinal Pole was sent at her request to England as papal legate, and the kingdom formally restored to the Roman Church. One of the most dreadful persecutions on record then ensued; and no less than 277 persons were burnt at Smithfield, the most eminent among these martyrs being Cranmer, Ridley, and Lat'imer.*

Measures of the queen.

16. To please her husband, Philip, now become king of Spain, the queen engaged in a war with France; but ill success attended her efforts; and Calais, which the English had held for more than two centuries, fell into the hands of the French. The queen was greatly mortified at this event; and her death occurred a short time after it (1558), much to the relief of the nation, who had been disgusted with her cruelty and bigotry. During this reign, commercial intercourse was established with Russia, a passage to Archangel having been discovered during the previous reign.

Other events.

17. Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn, who succeeded Mary, had been educated in the Protestant faith, and her accession to the throne was hailed by the people with great

* "Cranmer was conducted to the stake, declaring that he had never changed his belief; and that his recantations had been wrung from him by the hope of life; and that, as his hand had offended by writing contrary to his heart, it should be the first to receive its punishment. When the fire was kindled, to the surprise of the spectators, he thrust his hand into the flame, exclaiming, 'This hath offended!' His sufferings were short; the flames rapidly ascended above his head, and he expired in a few moments."—*Lingard's History of England.*

rejoicings. The first important event of her reign was the re-enactment of the laws of King Edward, concerning religion, and the re-establishment of the new liturgy, to which all were required to conform under severe penalties. By the *Act of Supremacy* all clergymen and government officers were compelled to take an oath acknowledging the English sovereign head of the Church; and by the *Act of Conformity*, no persons were allowed to attend any other places of worship than those of the established Church. Hundreds suffered death, imprisonment, or other persecution for refusing compliance with these arbitrary statutes.

First events of the reign.

18. The reign of Elizabeth for the first eleven years was distinguished for the internal quiet and prosperity of the country. She displayed that prudence, vigilance, and activity so necessary in a sovereign, and gained the almost universal esteem and admiration of her people. Though she was urged by Parliament to enter into the married state, and many distinguished princes, both Catholic and Protestant, sought her hand, she positively declined all such offers, and expressed her determination to remain single for life. She owed much of her success in administering the government to the great statesmen whom she selected as her ministers, among whom the most prominent were Cecil (*ses'il*), afterward Lord Burleigh, and Sir Francis Walsingham.

Conduct of the queen.

19. There were at this time in the kingdom three religious parties—namely, the Churchmen, or those who were attached to the established Church; the Roman Catholics, who, supported by the great Continental powers, expected to re-establish their religion; and the Puritans, who contended for more radical changes in religious forms and doctrines (1569). These last had imbibed their principles from those who, during the persecutions of the previous reign, had taken refuge in Geneva and Frank-

Religious parties.

fort; and they opposed Elizabeth's government, not only on the ground of religious differences, but on account of her assuming a prerogative and authority opposed to the civil and political rights of the people. It was not, however, until a subsequent reign that these fearless agitators were enabled to bring their principles into thorough operation.

Puritans.

20. England at this time began to distinguish herself in that splendid career of maritime enterprise which has shed so much luster upon her name. Under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh (*raw'le*), a favorite courtier of Elizabeth, voyages were made to North America; and the queen gave to the regions discovered the name of Virginia, in honor to herself as a virgin queen (1584). Frobisher also made voyages to search for a northwest passage to the Pacific; and Sir Francis Drake completed a voyage round the world, by way of Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope (1579).

Maritime affairs.

21. The people of the Netherlands having revolted against Philip II. of Spain, in consequence of his dreadful oppressions and persecutions (1572), Elizabeth warmly espoused their cause; and Philip, therefore, made extensive preparations to invade England and conquer it, so that he might restore it to the authority of the Pope. For this purpose he equipped an immense fleet, called the *Invincible Ar-ma'da*, consisting of 150 ships, bearing 3000 guns and 27,000 men. But this vast armament, as it sailed up the Channel, was attacked and partly destroyed by a much smaller fleet, under the command of Lord Howard, as admiral, assisted by those renowned captains, Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins. The Spanish admiral, therefore, finding it impossible to effect a landing on the coast, or gain any advantages over the English fleet, attempted to return to Spain by sailing around Scotland; but a storm arising, nearly all his vessels were wrecked off the Orkney Islands (1588).

War with Spain.

22. The year preceding this glorious event is memorable for the execution of the unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots, at Foth'er-in-gay Castle,* after an imprisonment of more than eighteen years. Mary was the great-granddaughter of Henry VII., and had first married Francis II., king of France, in which country she had been educated in the Catholic faith. The early death of her husband caused her to return to Scotland, where she assumed the throne, although she was much disliked by the Scots on account of her religion and her gay manners (1561). A few years afterward (1565), she married her cousin, Lord Darn'ley, with whom she lived very unhappily, on account of his misconduct, extravagance, and vicious excesses. Darnley, becoming jealous of her Italian secretary, Rizzio (*rēt'se-o*), rushed one evening into her apartment, where she was engaged with the secretary and others; and the unfortunate man was dragged into the antechamber, where he was stabbed to death (1566).

Mary Stuart.

MARY STUART.

23. Mary subsequently professed to have pardoned this atrocious outrage; but a few months afterward, Darnley's house was blown up by gunpowder, and he himself thus killed. The suspicion that Mary was accessory to this crime, was confirmed by her marriage, three months later, with the Earl of Bothwell, a dissolute nobleman, who was generally believed to have been concerned in its perpetration. This caused an insurrection of the nobles, who, having taken her prisoner, compelled her to abdicate the throne, and confined her in Loch

Flight to England.

* *Fotheringay*, a parish in Northampton Co., in the central part of England. The castle was razed to the ground after the accession of James I. (See Map No. XVI.)

Lev'en Castle.* She, however, escaped thence, and raised a small army, which was defeated by Murray the Regent; whereupon she fled into England and threw herself on the protection of Elizabeth; but instead of the generous hospitality which she had anticipated, she found herself a captive for life.

24. Mary had given great offense to Elizabeth, when in France, by assuming the title of Queen of England, on the ground that the marriage of Henry VIII. with Anne Boleyn was unlawful; and hence that Anne's daughter, being illegitimate, had no right to the throne; and during Mary's whole life, the Catholic party in England favored her pretensions, many conspiracies being formed by them to place her upon the throne. In the last of these, the object of which was to take the life of Elizabeth, Mary was found guilty of being an accomplice, and sentenced to death; and the warrant for her execution having been signed, she was beheaded (1587).† Queen Mary was one of the most beautiful and accomplished princesses of her age. Her manners were graceful and winning, and her conversation full of wit and sprightly intelligence. She was a charming singer, and could accompany herself on several instruments; and the poems which she has left attest a genius for that kind of composition.

Execution of Mary.

Character.

* *Loch Leven*, a small lake in the eastern part of Scotland, about twenty miles north of Edinburgh. It contains several islands, on one of which the remains of the castle still exist. This lake is not to be confounded with *Loch Leven* in the western part of Scotland, near which is the famous valley of *Glencoe*.

† The execution of Mary Queen of Scots presents one of the most pathetic scenes in history. "She knelt down with great courage, and, still holding the crucifix in her hands, stretched out her neck to the executioner. She then said aloud, and with the most ardent feeling of confidence, 'My God, I have hoped in you; I commit myself to your hands.' . . . There was a universal feeling of compassion at the sight of this lamentable misfortune, this heroic courage, this admirable sweetness. The executioner himself was moved, and aimed with an unsteady hand; the axe, instead of falling on the neck, struck the back of the head, and wounded her; yet she made no movement, nor uttered a complaint. It was only on repeating the blow that the executioner struck off her head, which he held up, saying, 'God save Queen Elizabeth!' 'Thus,' added Dr. Fletcher, 'may all her enemies perish.'"—*Mignet's History of Mary Queen of Scots.*

25. During the religious wars in France, Elizabeth gave all the aid in her power to the cause of the Protestants; and when Henry IV. had ascended the throne she sent him money, and a force under the Earl of Essex, to assist him in subduing his enemies (1589). Essex was a young nobleman who by his merit and accomplishments had gained very high favor with the queen; but he afterward fell into disgrace, in consequence of misconduct during an expedition against the revolted Irish (1599). Disappointed in obtaining a pardon from the queen, he entered into a plot to raise an insurrection against her, and with his accomplices was arrested, and being tried for treason, was convicted, and finally beheaded (1601).

Essex.

26. The fate of this young nobleman, for whom she appears to have had a very deep affection, oppressed the queen's mind with a settled melancholy, which was greatly increased when, as is stated, she learned that a ring which she had previously given to him, and which he had sent to her to recall her tenderness and incite her to clemency, had been treacherously withheld by one of his enemies. She died in the forty-fifth year of her reign, at the age of seventy (1603), leaving a reputation for prudence, vigor, and ability unsurpassed by any sovereign that ever reigned. This reign closes the Tudor line.

Death of Elizabeth.

State of Society in England,

During the Period of the Tudors (1485–1603).

27. The Tudors were, in general, arbitrary princes; and their will was but slightly checked by the proceedings of Parliament. Indeed, many practices were acquiesced in that violated the most sacred rights of the people. Of this character were the proceedings in the Court of Star Chamber, which was established or revived by *Henry* VII., and the Court of High Commission, instituted

Government.

by Elizabeth. The former was resorted to for the punishment of political offenses, the other to compel religious conformity. Unlimited supremacy was conferred by Parliament; and, during the reign of Elizabeth, to utter seditious words against the queen was a capital offense.

28. The revenue of Queen Elizabeth has been estimated at half a million sterling. She caused the customs to be more carefully collected; and in 1590 they amounted to fifty thousand pounds a year, having been raised to that sum from fourteen thousand. The supplies obtained from Parliament during her whole reign are said to have only amounted to three millions, so that she must have exercised very great economy to carry on such vast undertakings with so slender a revenue. The merchants of London were always willing to grant her the loans of money which she required.

Revenue.

29. Commerce and navigation made very great progress during the sixteenth century. The voyage of Columbus had given a vast impulse to maritime adventure, which was still further stimulated by the rich traffic to which it gave rise. Magellan's discovery of a southwest passage to the East, led to many attempts during this period to discover one in the northwest. Martin Frobisher made three fruitless voyages with this object; and Davis, not discouraged by his failure, made another attempt, in which he discovered the strait that bears his name. The discovery of a passage to Archangel, which was made during the reign of Queen Mary, brought England into close communication with Russia; but active commerce with that country did not begin until 1569.* Elizabeth obtained from the Czar

Commerce and navigation.

* "In the year 1553, the English sent forth three ships for the discovery of a northeastern passage to Cathay, or China. Two of these were wrecked; the third, commanded by Richard Chancellor, proceeded to 'an unknown part of the world,' and reached a place where there was 'no night at all but a continual light and brightness of the sun shining clearly upon the huge and mighty sea.' At length they came to a bay, and the mouth of the Dwina, and report having announced them to the terrified natives as men of 'a strange nation, of singular gentleness

a patent by which the English were to have the whole trade of the empire. Encouraged by this privilege, the English ventured farther into that vast region than any Europeans had previously done, establishing a commercial route with the Caspian and the East by way of the Dwina and Volga rivers. This caused great jealousy and opposition on the part of the Hanse towns; but Elizabeth promptly repressed their measures. Trade also began to be carried on with Turkey.

30. The naval power of England commenced in the reign of Henry VII.; but ship-building was evidently not active, since his successor was obliged to hire vessels from Hamburg, Lubeck, Genoa, Venice, and other great commercial towns. Under the vigorous sway of the Virgin Queen, a better state of things was introduced; and, in 1582, the number of seamen in England was registered at over fourteen thousand; and the number of vessels amounted to above twelve hundred. The navy, at her death, was considered large; but the whole number of guns was less than eight hundred. The military force of the nation, at the time of the threatened attack by the Spanish Armada, was set down at about 200,000 men.

Naval power.

31. Manufacturing industry, at the commencement of Elizabeth's reign, had made but little progress, foreign wares of all kinds enjoying the preference over those made at home. The persecutions in France and the Netherlands, however, drove a large number of skilled artisans into England, who laid the foundation of the manufacturing prosperity afterward attained. The cloth manufacture was so extensive, that as many as 200,000 pieces were said to be exported annually from England. The making of pins commenced during Elizabeth's reign. Before that time

Manufactures.

and courtesy,' Chancellor was able to travel into the interior. He found that the country was called Russia, or Muscovy, and that Ivan Vassilievitch II. 'ruled and governed far and wide.' This was 'the discovery of Russia,' of which the fame spread through Spain the belief 'of the discovery of New Indies,' and in England gave immediate impulse to mercantile adventure."—*Bancroft's Studies in History*

the ladies used to fasten their dresses with clasps, small skewers of gold, silver, or brass, or hooks and eyes.

32. Agriculture was carried on with more skill, although vast tracts of land were still devoted to the pasturage of sheep. The condition of the peasantry was considerably improved. Their wattled huts gave place by degrees to comfortable houses, built of stone or brick; and glass windows came into general use. Wheaten bread was eaten more generally, although rye and barley constituted the principal food of the poorer classes. Potatoes were introduced from South America by Raleigh, who also brought tobacco from the West Indies, and set the example of using it in England.

Agriculture.

Houses, etc.

33. The ancient magnificence and hospitality of the nobility were still in part retained. The Earl of Leicester gave the queen an entertainment at his famous castle at Kenilworth, in which the most astonishing profusion was displayed. Among other particulars, it is said that as many as three hundred and sixty-five hogsheads of beer were consumed. Lord Burleigh is said to have kept a hundred servants; and his silver plate, it is remarked by a writer of the period, "amounted to only fourteen or fifteen thousand pounds in weight." Great luxury in apparel was also indulged in, the queen taking the lead; who, though she issued a proclamation to restrain this species of extravagance, at her death left a wardrobe of 3,000 dresses.

Luxury of the nobles.

34. The revival of learning, particularly the study of the classics, constituted a remarkable feature of this period. Erasmus, a native of Holland, was professor of Greek in the University of Oxford, and did much toward the attainment of this result. Henry VIII., Mary, Elizabeth, and Lady Jane Grey were all distinguished for their classical learning. Roger Ascham has already been referred to as a distinguished teacher of Latin and Greek. Middle English now gave place to the New or Modern Eng-

Learning.

lish, which, with slight modifications, continues to be the language used. This was the language of Shakspeare and Bacon. In the first part of this period, the drama consisted of short plays called "Interludes," of which the most successful writer was John Heywood, who lived at the court of Henry VIII. To this period belong Edmund Spenser, the author of the *Faerie Queene;* and Sir Philip Sidney, who wrote a pastoral romance, called *Arcadia.* Sir Thomas More wrote a philosophical romance called *Utopia,* which is much celebrated. Queen Elizabeth also wrote verses, and claimed to be a poetess.

Noted writers.

SECTION II.

The Stuart Family.

35. James I., the son of Mary Queen of Scots, succeeded Elizabeth, not only by right of birth, but by the nomination of the late queen. He had been proclaimed king of Scotland under the title of James VI., after the abdication of Mary (1567), being then an infant; and, therefore, on his accession to the English throne, the two countries became united under one monarch, although they continued for about a century longer to have their own separate legislatures.

James I.

36. In the first part of this reign, a conspiracy was formed to subvert the government and place Arabella Stuart, the king's cousin, on the throne; and in this scheme the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh was accused of being concerned, and was kept in imprisonment for several years, during which he wrote his "History of the World." Being released in order that he might point out a gold-mine which he said existed in Guiana (*ghe-ah'nah*), and having *failed* in the expedition, he was, on his return, beheaded, in

Raleigh.

pursuance of the sentence previously pronounced against him (1618).* This act reflects a lasting disgrace upon James, who sacrificed this illustrious man to appease the anger of Spain, incensed by the attack which Raleigh had made upon several of the Spanish settlements in South America.

37. Some of the Catholic party, disappointed in not receiving the religious liberty which they had expected on the accession of James, became concerned in a plot to overturn the government by the destruction of the king and Parliament (1605). For this purpose a vault below the House of Lords was hired, in which thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were stored. These were to be fired, on the opening of Parliament, by one Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, who was the agent of this conspiracy,—called the Gunpowder Plot. It was fortunately discovered just on the eve of its execution, and Guy Fawkes with some of the other conspirators was executed.

Gunpowder plot.

RALEIGH.

38. James, although of a pusillanimous disposition, was very persistent in upholding the royal prerogative, being prone on all occasions to insist on the divine right of kings to

* "Raleigh in vain submitted to the court that the commission given him as commander, the power of life and death over others, amounted to a pardon; execution was granted, and the scholar, the writer, the warrior, and the statesman (for Raleigh was all of these) was led to a scaffold, in the 66th year of his age, in order to cement by his blood a marriage with a daughter of Spain. He mounted the scaffold with that courage which never deserted him. When he had taken off his gown and doublet, he asked the executioner to let him see the axe. He poised it, and running his thumb along the edge, said, with a smile, 'This is a sharp medicine, but it will cure all diseases.' The executioner was going to blindfold him, but he refused to let him, saying, 'Think you I fear the shadow of the axe, when I fear not the axe itself?' He gave the signal by stretching out his hands, and his head was struck off at two blows."—*Keightley's History of England.*

rule without control. His arbitrary acts and principles, however, met with decided opposition from the Parliament of 1621, who declared their privileges to be the ancient and undoubted birthright of the English people; which declaration so incensed the king, that he sent for the Journals of the Commons, and tore the record out with his own hands. A settlement was effected in Virginia, during the previous part of this reign (1607), at a place named, in honor of the king, Jamestown.

Course of Parliament.

39. James had been educated by the celebrated George Bu-chan'an, of Scotland, and possessed considerable learning, of which he was passionately fond of making a display; so that, although he was excessively flattered by his courtiers, his pedantry gained him very general ridicule. The distinguished French minister, Sully, very aptly styled him "the wisest fool in Christendom." He was as devoid of dignity of manners and conversation as of good sense, his unseemly familiarity being equal to his childish vanity and offensive arrogance.

Manners of the king.

MUSKETEER AND PIKEMAN, TIME OF JAMES I.

40. One of the worst characteristics of this monarch was his proneness to attach himself to unworthy favorites, the first of whom was Robert Carr, a young Scotchman, on whom James for several years lavished the most profuse favors, bestowing on him the title of Earl of Somerset. Carr was succeeded in the king's favor by George Villiers (*vil'yerz*), who was created Duke of Buckingham, and gained an infamous notoriety by his profligacy and arrogant conduct. James being anxious to bring about a marriage between his son Charles and the

Carr and Buckingham.

Infanta of Spain, Buckingham conceived the romantic project of a journey to Spain by the young prince and himself in disguise. On their way they visited the French court, where Charles first saw the French princess Henrietta Maria, whom he subsequently married.

41. A treaty was soon afterward made with France, one of the terms of which confirmed this proposed marriage; but, before it was carried into effect, the king was suddenly seized with illness, and expired, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign of twenty-two years (1625). One of the most important events of this period was a new translation of the Bible. It was executed under the patronage of the king, and by a number of learned men designated by him. It was published in 1611; and having superseded other versions, continues to be the *English Bible* in general use among English-speaking Protestants.

King's death.

Translation of the Bible.

42. The Puritans—so called from their strict principles and austerity of life—greatly increased in numbers and influence during this reign. Their public preachings were directed against the dissoluteness, levity, and luxury of the times, and particularly inculcated a more serious observance of the Sabbath, which had previously been a day of pleasure and pastime. Some of them, disgusted with the king's high-handed measures, especially against those who refused to conform to the established church, emigrated to Holland, and afterward to New England, where they made a settlement at Plymouth (1620). This emigration was continued during the next reign.

Puritans.

43. Charles I., on his accession, was in his twenty-fifth year; and soon afterward married Henrietta Maria, daughter of the French king Henry IV. In order to prosecute a war with Spain, which had been brought on by the arrogance and misconduct of the Duke of Buckingham, he summoned a parliament, and

Measures of Parliament.

asked for a vote of supplies. This the Commons, under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wentworth, Sir John Eliot, and others, refused to grant, unless Charles would relinquish some of the prerogatives which had been exercised by his father, and which he still claimed as his hereditary right. Charles, therefore, dissolved the parliament, and levied money by his own authority.

44. These forced loans, called *tonnage and poundage*,* and *ship-money*,† gave great offense to the people, whose discontent was still further increased by the conduct of Buckingham,—particularly by the failure, through his mismanagement, of an expedition designed to assist the Huguenots, or French Protestants, in their contest with Richelieu (*reesh'e-lu*). In a succeeding parliament, accordingly, the king met with more determined opposition; and the famous *Petition of Right*‡ was adopted, to which the king was obliged to give his assent (1628). Soon after this the Duke of Buckingham was assassinated at Portsmouth, by an officer of the army whom he had offended.

King's measures.

45. This parliament having been again assembled in 1629, and proving refractory, the king determined to rule without a parliament, and continued his illegal exactions. He also, by means principally of the Court of *Star Chamber*,§ attempted to punish such of the popular leaders as had made themselves particularly obnoxious.

King and Parliament.

* *Tonnage and poundage* were duties on imported merchandise which it had been customary to allow the king to levy since the reign of Edward III. The Parliament of 1625 refused, however, to grant this privilege to the king for a longer period than one year.

† *Ship-money* was an arbitrary tax levied on the seaports for the equipment of a fleet. Charles extended it over the whole kingdom.

‡ The *Petition of Right* was an emphatic statement of the privileges of the people as conferred by previous enactments. It is regarded as the *Second Great Charter* of English liberties.

§ The Court of *Star Chamber* was of very ancient origin, and derived its name from the chamber of the king's palace at Westminster in which it used to hold its sessions, the ceiling of this apartment being decorated with stars. It had very extensive powers, both civil and criminal, and could adjudge cases without the intervention of a jury. Hence it became a formidable instrument of tyranny. It was abolished by act of Parliament in 1641.

Some of them were fined for what was called their seditious language in Parliament; but they refused to pay the fines, and Sir John Eliot died in prison. Charles, however, chose some of his ministers from among the popular leaders; one of whom, Sir Thomas Wentworth, was created Earl of Strafford, and became the chief minister of the king.

46. Another cause of complaint was afforded by the policy of the king with regard to religion. Under the influence of Archbishop Laud, the liturgy was altered and the ritual increased by many of the ceremonial observances of the Catholic Church, very much to the disgust of the great body of the English people, but particularly of the Puritans. Many of the latter, to avoid conforming to the requirements of the established church, emigrated to New England, and founded Massachusetts and other colonies in that country. Charles also attempted to force this liturgy upon the Scottish people; but they rose in insurrection against it; and the famous Covenant was formed and signed, according to which they solemnly bound themselves to unite for their mutual defense, and to resist all religious innovations (1638). The king requiring them to relinquish the covenant, a war ensued; and a Scottish army invaded England, which, after defeating a detachment of the royal forces at the Tyne River, took possession of Newcastle.

Laud.

Puritans.

Covenant.

47. This compelled the king finally to call another parliament, in order to obtain supplies. This body, memorable as the Long Parliament, assembled in 1640, and immediately commenced the redress of public grievances. One of its first acts was the impeachment of the Earl of Strafford, who had become odious to the popular leaders because of his desertion of their cause, and the aid he had given the king in carrying out his most arbitrary measures. Being tried and found guilty of treason, he was beheaded, the king

Long Parliament.

Strafford and Laud.

having ungratefully given his assent to the execution (1641). Archbishop Laud was also impeached and imprisoned in the Tower, but his execution did not take place until four years afterward. In the same year, a dreadful insurrection broke out in Ireland against the government, and the English were massacred with every species of cruelty (1641).

Ireland.

48. Meanwhile, the Parliament continued its measures of redress; and the king took a step which still further inflamed the popular indignation against him. Going with an armed retinue to the House, he demanded that five of its members should be pointed out to him in order that they might be seized. But the Speaker, Lenthall, refused to comply, boldly declaring that he was the servant of the House, and could only act in accordance with its directions. The king therefore retired without effecting his object, amid the low murmurs of "Privilege! privilege!" from the indignant members (1642). Among the five members thus assailed was the noted patriot John Hampden, who, a few years before, had gained the applause of the people by making a bold stand against the illegal levy of ship-money.

King and Parliament.

49. The king, whose conduct was characterized by great irresolution as well as rashness and imprudence, afterward apologized for this breach of the privileges of Parliament; but the latter was now determined on extreme measures, and demanded the royal assent to propositions which would have stripped him of all authority. Finding a large party in his favor, he collected what forces he could, and erected the royal standard, resolved to stake the issue upon the sword. The Parliament had also made preparations for the struggle; and thus was commenced that great civil war which raged for years between those who supported the authority of the king and those who wished to *limit,* or destroy it (1642).

Civil war commenced.

50. The Cavaliers, as the royalists were then called, included the greater part of the nobility, clergy, and landed gentry, with those who were attached to the established church, and all the Catholics. The supporters of Parliament were chiefly composed of the yeomanry of the country, the townspeople, and the dissenters, who were chiefly Puritans. These last were called *Roundheads*, in derision of their custom of wearing their hair cropped short.* The parliamentary forces were at first led by the Earl of Essex; those of the king, by the Earl of Lindsay. The cavalry of the latter was commanded by the famous Prince Rupert.†

Cavaliers.

Roundheads.

51. The first general engagement took place at Edgehill, and Lindsay was mortally wounded and taken prisoner; but there was no decisive victory on either side (1642). In a skirmish the next year, the illustrious John Hampden was mortally wounded;‡ and his loss

Hampden.

* "The Cavaliers, who affected a liberal way of thinking, as well as a gayety and freedom of manners inconsistent with puritanical ideas, were represented by the Roundheads as a set of abandoned profligates, equally destitute of religion and morals; the devoted tools of the court, and the zealous abettors of arbitrary power. The Cavaliers, on the other hand, regarded the Roundheads as a gloomy, narrow-minded, fanatical herd, determined enemies to kingly power, and to all distinction of ranks in society. But in these characters, drawn by the passions of the two parties, we must not expect impartiality; both are certainly overcharged."—*Russell's Modern Europe.*

† Prince Rupert was the son of Frederick, Elector-Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I.; so that the reigning king, Charles I., was his uncle. He was not only prominent in this war, but afterward acquired great distinction in the naval operations of England. Subsequently he became noted for his researches in science and the useful arts.

‡ "The news of Hampden's death produced as great a consternation in his party, according to Clarendon, as if their whole army had been cut off. The journals of the time amply prove that the Parliament and all its friends were filled with grief and dismay. Lord Nugent has quoted a remarkable passage from the next *Weekly Intelligencer.* 'The loss of Colonel Hampden goeth near the heart of every man that loves the good of his king and country; and makes some conceive little content to be at the army now that he has gone. The memory of this deceased colonel is such that in no age to come but it will more and more be had in honor and esteem;—a man so religious, and of that prudence, judgment, temper, valor, and integrity, that he hath left few his like behind him.'"—*Macaulay's Miscellaneous Essays.*

was felt as a severe blow to the popular party. Several battles were fought during the same year (1643), the most important of which was that of Newbury. The result was still indecisive; but the royalists lost one of their chief supporters in the brave and eloquent Lord Falkland (*fawk'land*), who, while he had at first firmly and patriotically opposed the unjust pretensions of the king, stood by him when the attempt was made by Parliament to deprive him of his legal authority.

Falkland.

52. The Parliament entered into negotiations with Scotland to combine their forces against the king; and, principally through the address of Sir Henry Vane, who had been sent as a commissioner to Edinburgh, a "solemn league and covenant" was entered into by which the Scottish people renewed the pledges of the previous covenant, and bound themselves to assist the cause of the English Parliament. A large army was, accordingly, sent into England; but this was counterbalanced by a considerable force which the king succeeded in obtaining from Ireland (1643). Lord Fairfax, who commanded the parliamentary forces in the north, formed a junction with the Scotch, and laid siege to York.

Sir Henry Vane.

Fairfax.

53. Prince Rupert, arriving with a considerable army, raised the siege, and brought on the battle of Marston Moor, in which the royalists sustained a severe defeat, principally through the activity and skill of Oliver Cromwell, by whom Prince Rupert's cavalry was routed and his artillery captured (1644). A short time afterward, the command of the parliamentary army was transferred to Sir Thomas Fairfax, a man entirely under the influence of Cromwell; and, the next year (1645), a very decisive victory was gained by Fairfax and Cromwell over the king's forces at Naseby (*naze'be*), in which the latter especially distinguished himself by his skill and valor.

Oliver Cromwell.

Battle of Naseby.

54. After other reverses, the king, despairing of success, gave himself up to the Scottish army (1646), expecting to be treated with respect and liberality; but the Scots delivered him up to the English Parliament, by whom he was kept a prisoner (1647). Soon afterward, the Puritan dissenters known as *Separatists* or *Independents*, triumphed over the Presbyterians; and Cromwell, who belonged to the former, obtained, through his influence with the army, control of the Parliament. Finding the Presbyterian members hostile to his views, he caused the House to be surrounded by two regiments under Colonel Pride, one of his trusty officers, and excluded all but the most determined of the Independents. This invasion of the Parliament was called, in derision, "Colonel Pride's Purge" (1648).

Surrender of the king.

Cromwell's measures.

55. Meanwhile, the king had offered important concessions, which the Presbyterians were disposed to accept; but the Independents, who now controlled Parliament, voted them to be unsatisfactory, for Cromwell and the other generals under his influence were resolved on the entire subversion of royalty and the establishment of a republic. Accordingly, a resolution was adopted that the king had been guilty of treason in levying war against his Parliament; and a court was organized to try him. This court, presided over by John Bradshaw, a lawyer, consisted of 133 members, among whom were the chief officers of the army; and, although the king refused to acknowledge its authority, he was found guilty, and three days afterward was beheaded (January 30, 1649).*

Independents.

Execution of the king.

* "Whatever had been the faults and follies of Charles's life, 'he nothing common did, or mean, upon that memorable scene.' Two masked executioners awaited the king as he mounted the scaffold, which had been erected outside one of the windows of the Banqueting House at Whitehall; the streets and roofs were thronged with spectators; and a strong body of soldiers stood drawn up beneath. His head fell at the first blow; and, as the executioner lifted it to the sight of all, a groan of pity and horror burst from the silent crowd."—*Green's History of the English People.*

56. The Scots had protested against this whole proceeding, and foreign nations interceded in the king's behalf. The Prince of Wales, anxious to save his father's life, sent a blank sheet of paper, subscribed with his name and sealed with his arms, on which the judges might write what conditions they pleased as the price of the king's release; but these men could not be moved from their purpose. A few days after the death of Charles, the Commons abolished the House of Lords, and formally proclaimed the establishment of the *Commonwealth*, declaring it high treason to acknowledge Charles, the Prince of Wales, king of England.

Commonwealth proclaimed.

57. The character of Charles I. was in many respects worthy of commendation. In his private relations his conduct was quite exemplary, being entirely free from those vices which so often sully the character of kings. As a monarch, his principal fault was insincerity, by which he lost the confidence of his people; for he gave his assent to measures of reform which he subsequently endeavored to evade. His arbitrary conduct finds some apology in the fact that his predecessors had exercised most of the powers which he claimed; but his prudence and moderation were not sufficient to convince him that the change which had taken place in the sentiments of the people necessitated a corresponding change in the royal claims; and a sad experience was needed to show him that no authority, however great, can prevail over the influence of public opinion.

Character of Charles I.

58. The Commonwealth. Cromwell, as Lord Lieutenant, having entirely subdued the insurrection which had broken out in Ireland, was next sent by the Parliament to Scotland, where the Covenanters had proclaimed Charles II. king, and had raised a large army for his support. They were entirely defeated by Cromwell in the battle of Dunbar (1650); after which Charles determined to march into England, expecting to obtain large

Ireland and Scotland.

accessions to his army. But in this he was disappointed; and being promptly pursued by Cromwell, was defeated at Worcester (*woos'ter*), where the whole Scottish army were either killed or taken prisoners (1651). Charles escaped from England with great difficulty, being obliged to travel for two months in the disguise of a peasant. At one time, he concealed himself for twenty-four hours in a large oak-tree, while his pursuers passed on. This tree was afterward known as the Royal Oak.

Prince Charles.

59. The affairs of the English republic, under the administration of the Parliament, continued to be prosperous. The Portuguese were humbled by Admiral Blake; Ireland was reduced to submission by Ire'ton, one of Cromwell's generals; and Scotland was entirely subjugated by General Monk, whom Cromwell had left to complete the work commenced by the battle of Dunbar. Being offended by the haughty behavior of the Dutch republic, the Parliament passed the famous Navigation Act, which prohibited all nations from importing any merchandise into England or her colonies except in English ships, or in the ships of the country where the goods were produced. The Dutch being at this time the principal commercial nation of Europe, a war was brought on, in which Blake gained several splendid victories over the Dutch fleets, commanded by the great admirals Van Tromp and De Ruy'ter (1651–3).

English success.

Dutch war.

60. Meanwhile, Cromwell perceiving that the Parliament had become jealous of his power, determined to dissolve it. Accordingly, going to the House with 300 soldiers, he loaded the members with the vilest reproaches, and bade them "to be gone and give place to honester men." Seizing the mace, he exclaimed, "Take away this bauble!" Then commanding the soldiers to clear the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked; and putting the keys in his pocket, departed to his lodgings (1653). Thus, being supported by the army, he obtained the supreme power

Parliament dissolved.

of the government. Desiring, however, to preserve some of the forms of the republic, he issued writs for the election of 156 persons, who were to constitute a parliament. These, by his management, consisted of the meanest and most fanatical of the citizens, one of whom, a leather-dealer named Praise-God Barebone, having made himself prominent by his sanctimonious cant and long prayers, the Parliament was called, in derision, "Barebone's Parliament." It was also known as the "Little Parliament."

Little Parliament.

61. Cromwell soon dissolved this ridiculous assembly, and caused himself to be appointed Lord Protector. He was to be assisted by a Council of State, and was bound to summon a parliament every three years (1653). A short time previously, Van Tromp, the distinguished Dutch admiral, had been killed in an action with the English under Blake; and the Dutch, terrified by their losses and overwhelmed with the expense of the war, now solicited peace. This was at last granted by Cromwell, and a defensive league was established between the two republics, the honor of the flag being yielded to the English (1654). The administration of Cromwell was characterized by great vigor and ability. He boasted that he would make the name of *Englishman* as much feared and respected as had been that of *Roman;* and the uniform success of his naval and military enterprises went far to realize this saying. John Milton,*

Cromwell Protector.

MILTON.

Peace with the Dutch.

Cromwell's government.

* "In the character of Milton the noblest qualities of every party were combined in harmonious union. From the Parliament and from the court, from the convent and from the Gothic cloister, from the gloomy and sepulchral circles of the

the poet, acted as Foreign Secretary under Cromwell, and wrote in defense of the Commonwealth.

62. Under Blake, the English fleets achieved an uninterrupted series of victories. He subdued the Barbary Powers (1655), and defeated the Spaniards in several important actions (1656–7). His death occurred in 1657. Blake was an inflexible republican; but he disapproved of the usurpations of Cromwell, notwithstanding the honors which the latter heaped upon him. During the war waged with Spain, the island of Jamaica was captured by an English squadron under Admirals Penn and Venables (1655); and Dunkirk was captured from the Spaniards by the combined forces of France and England (1658).

Admiral Blake.

Jamaica.

63. Cromwell, although prosperous abroad, was at home involved in very great difficulties. He had called two parliaments successively; but not finding them subservient to his views, he had promptly dissolved them (1654–1656). He was threatened with conspiracies against his government; and, after reading a book published by one Colonel Titus, and entitled "Killing no Murder," he became afraid of assassination, and constantly wore armor under his clothes, and carried pistols in his pockets. At last the dreadful anxiety of his mind brought on a fever, of which he expired in his sixtieth year (September 3, 1658), —the anniversary of the day on which he had gained the victories of Dunbar and Worcester. He was of a robust frame of body, and of a manly, though not an agreeable aspect. His character had very many traits of greatness; but his perverted ambition made him cruel and

Death of Cromwell.

Character.

Roundheads and from the Christmas revel of the hospitable Cavalier, his nature selected and drew to itself whatever was great and good, while it rejected all the base and pernicious ingredients by which those fine elements were defiled. Like the Puritans, he lived 'as ever in his great Taskmaster's eye.' Like them, he kept his mind continually fixed on an Almighty Judge and an eternal reward; and hence he acquired their contempt of external circumstances, their fortitude, their tranquillity, their inflexible resolution."—*Macaulay.*

unprincipled. No one can gainsay the splendid talents which he displayed, both as a general and a statesman; and, had he rightfully possessed the sovereign power, he would undoubtedly have compared favorably with any monarch that ever reigned.

64. Richard Cromwell succeeded his father in the office of Protector; but his want of capacity for so difficult a position was soon manifest, notwithstanding he was supported by General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland, and by his brother Henry, as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. A parliament was called, but it having given offense to the army officers, the latter compelled Richard to dissolve it (1659). Soon after this he signed his own abdication, and thus left the supreme authority to the army, who then ruled by a council of officers. The country being threatened with anarchy and civil war, General Monk marched his army into England, and subdued the contending factions. A parliament was then called, and Charles II. was proclaimed king (May 29, 1660). This event is known in English history as the **Restoration.**

Restoration effected.

65. Charles II. came to the throne with the universal rejoicings of the people. At the commencement of his reign, an act was passed pardoning all who had taken part in the Great Rebellion, except the regicide judges, some of whom were tried and executed. On the anniversary of the late king's death, the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were disinterred, hanged on the gallows, then decapitated, and their heads fixed on Westminster Hall. With this exception the king showed great moderation and clemency, and admitted into his council both royalists and Presbyterians. Sir Edward Hyde was created Earl of Clarendon, and made prime minister.

Amnesty.

Clarendon.

66. The most remarkable feature of this period was the entire change which took place in the sentiments of the people. During the reign of Charles I. they manifested the most

intense zeal for liberty; but now they seemed eager to evince an equally extravagant spirit of submission. Under the control of the Puritans, they seemed to think that religion consisted in gloom, austerity, and the sacrifice of all social gayety and pleasure; but, going to the opposite extreme, they now plunged into riot and dissipation. Everything religious or serious was ridiculed; and nothing but scenes of gallantry and festivity occupied the general attention. The monarch set the example, and indulged himself in mirth and festivity, while those who had suffered in his father's cause were left in wretchedness and neglect.* This profusion and reckless self-indulgence on the part of the king considerably abated the people's loyalty, for they could not forbear a comparison between this slothful and licentious monarch and the great Protector who had made the name of England so glorious throughout the world.

Change in manners.

Conduct of Charles.

67. Dunkirk, which had been acquired during that splendid period, was now sold to the French to supply means for the king's extravagant pleasures (1664). The same year war was commenced against the Dutch; and the English took possession of New Netherlands in North America, and captured some of the Dutch settlements in Africa. De Ruyter retaliated by attacking Barbadoes and some of the other English dependencies. A great naval battle was fought off the eastern coast of England, in which James, Duke of York, brother of the king, defeated the Dutch fleet with immense loss (1665). France then took sides with the Dutch republic; but the combined fleets of the allies, commanded by the great Admiral De Ruyter and the Duke of Beaufort, were

Dunkirk.

Dutch war.

French war.

* In the third year of his reign, Charles had married Catharine of Braganza, a Portuguese princess, with whom he received a large dowry; but finding her disposition serious and her manners formal and grave, he entirely neglected her for the society of his gay and dissolute companions.

defeated by the English under the Duke of Al'be-marle (previously General Monk) and Prince Rupert. This battle lasted four days, and was one of the most terrific naval engagements ever fought (1666).

68. It was at this time that the Great Plague broke out in London; and such was its virulence, that the deaths in the City alone were estimated at not less than 100,000 in one year (1665). Close upon this dreadful calamity followed the Great Fire, which raged for three days, and destroyed upward of 13,000 dwelling-houses and ninety churches (1666). The desire of Charles to save expense, in order that he might have means for his extravagant indulgences, led to neglect in keeping up the naval force of the kingdom; and the Dutch, taking advantage of this, defiantly entered the harbors, and did immense havoc to the shipping. They even sailed up the Thames, extending their ravages as far as London Bridge (1667). Peace was, however, declared the same year.

Great Plague.

Attack of the Dutch.

69. The disgraceful close of this war, together with the previous measures, made the government very unpopular; and Clarendon was impeached and banished. Five ministers, called afterward the *Cabal*,* were then chosen, who adopted the policy of restraining the French king Louis XIV. in his ambitious scheme of seizing the Spanish Netherlands.† A league was formed with Holland and Sweden, called the Triple Alliance; and Louis was compelled to abandon his enterprise (1668). Charles afterward became dissatisfied with the alliance and concluded a disgraceful treaty with Louis, in which he agreed to assist the latter in subjugating Holland, and also consented

The Cabal.

Triple Allinace.

* The initial letters of the names of these ministers—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale—gave point to this term of reproach, which at [illegible]d, as at present, was used to signify any secret committee, or junto.

† [illegible]part of Netherlands which remained in possession of Spain after the [illegible]inces had revolted and achieved their independence. It included the [illegible]gdom of Belgium

to make a public profession of the Catholic faith. For this he was to receive as a compensation an immense sum of money yearly from the French coffers (1670).

70. Shortly afterward (1672), England joined France in a war against the Dutch; and while the fleets of the latter contended with those of the English commanded by the Duke of York, the French army invaded the territory of the republic, captured many of its cities, and drove it to the extreme measure of opening the sluices and inundating the country. In these perilous circumstances the Dutch forces were commanded by William, Prince of Orange, who gained great distinction by his determined courage and patriotism. The war continued till 1674, when it had become so unpopular that the king was compelled to make a treaty of peace with the Dutch provinces.*

Dutch war.

William of Orange.

71. While this war was in progress, the *Test Act* was passed by Parliament, obliging all government officers to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and to abjure all the doctrines of the Catholic Church. The Duke of York, brother of the king, who had made a public profession of his adherence to that church, resigned the office of admiral, and was succeeded by Prince Rupert. Much excitement was produced by an alleged conspiracy (called the "Popish Plot"). It was rumored that the Catholics had planned to set fire to the city of London, assassinate the king, and deliver the country to the French. The chief witness in this absurd accusation was one Titus Oates, who afterward was proved to be a most infamous character. Before, however, the imposture was discovered, many innocent persons suffered death, among them the aged and illustrious Earl of Stafford (1680).

Test Act.

Popish Plot.

Death of Surrey.

* The Dutch republic was called the "Republic of the Seven United Provinces." It included the present kingdom of Holland.

72. In the year 1679, was passed the famous *Ha'be-as Corpus*[*] act, securing all subjects from imprisonment, except where it can be shown to be justified by law. This was designed to check the illegal and arbitrary arrests made by the authority of the king, who in every respect exercised the most despotic sway. He deprived many of the cities, London included, of their charters, in order to extort money for their restoration: and no one felt himself secure from the numerous gangs of spies and informers who were employed by the court. This state of things led to a very remarkable conspiracy, called the Rye-House Plot (1683).

Rye-House Plot.

73. The members of this plot were, Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, John Hampden (grandson of the great patriot), the Duke of Monmouth (the king's natural son), and others. The object was to restore the liberties of the country by dethroning its present arbitrary monarch, but the conspirators did not agree as to the mode of accomplishing it. Monmouth expected the throne himself, Russell wished simply reform, and Sidney was enthusiastic for the restoration of the republic. The plot having been discovered, Russell and Sidney were beheaded (1683); but Monmouth, who had succeeded in making his escape, was afterward pardoned. The death of Charles occurred a short time afterward (1685); and his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded, under the title of James II.

Members and object.

Death of Charles.

74. James II., notwithstanding the glory he had acquired as a naval commander, was very unpopular on account of his religion, to which he showed the greatest attachment. The Duke of Monmouth, who had fled to Holland during the pre-

[*] ...as corpus means "have the body." The writ, or order of the court of ...s so called because it enjoins any person restraining another's liberty, to ...dy, that is, to produce the prisoner, before the court, so that the cause ...ntion may be known.

ceding reign, now set up a claim to the throne, and landing in England, was soon joined by a considerable force. He was, however, completely defeated at Sedge'moor,* and being apprehended after the battle, was tried and executed (1685). The most dreadful persecution followed of those who were implicated in the rebellion. Trials were held under the infamous Judge Jef'freys; and many innocent persons were condemned and executed. This wicked judge boasted of the large number of persons (more than 300) whom he had caused to be hanged.

Insurrection.

Jeffries.

75. The imprudent zeal of the king in promoting the Catholics to power, occasioned great excitement and dissatisfaction. Having issued a proclamation allowing liberty of conscience, and declaring that non-conformity to the established religion should no longer be punished, he required that this declaration should be read in all the churches. The clergy refused to obey; and a petition was presented against the proclamation by seven bishops, including Sancroft, the primate. James, exasperated at this opposition, caused the bishops to be arrested and imprisoned in the Tower (1688). The popular excitement produced by this act of the king was intense. Crowds attended the bishops as they were conducted to the Tower, and signified their sympathy and veneration in every possible way. The acquittal of the bishops after their trial at Westminster Hall, still further increased the commotion, even the soldiers whom James had collected for his protection taking part against him.

Zeal of the king.

Arrest of the bishops.

76. A few months afterward, William, Prince of Orange,† who had married Mary, eldest daughter of James II., taking advantage of the popular indignation against the king, set

* *Sedgemoor*, a wild tract of country in the southwestern part of England, not far from Bristol Channel.

† William was the son of Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., and consequently was a *nephew* of James II.; and Mary, his wife, was his first cousin. Setting aside the family of James II., William was thus the next lawful heir to the throne.

sail from Holland with a large fleet and army, and proceeded to England. Having effected a landing at Torbay, he marched toward London; whereupon James, finding himself without support, fled to France. A convention of representatives was immediately assembled (January 1689); and the crown was bestowed on William and Mary for their lives, the succession being settled on the Princess Anne, second daughter of James II., who had married Prince George of Denmark. The convention annexed to this settlement a Declaration of Rights, definitely fixing the extent of the king's prerogative, and more precisely stating the constitutional principles of the government.

Landing of William.

Convention.

WILLIAM III.

77. The most important articles of this instrument were: 1. The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution; 2. He cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament; 3. The subjects have a right to petition the crown; 4. A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace without the consent of Parliament; 5. Elections and parliamentary debates must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled. These acts of the convention were afterward confirmed by a parliament regularly summoned, in an enactment called the *Bill of Rights*, and constituted what is called in English history the *Glorious Revolution of* 1688.*

Declaration of rights.

Revolution.

78. William and Mary. Although the crown had been conferred jointly upon William and Mary, the administration of the government was exclusively intrusted to the former.

* So called, although it took place in 1689 (January); because, until 1752, the English commenced the year on the 25th of March.

James II. having received a considerable naval force from the French king, Louis XIV., proceeded to Ireland, where the people were generally favorable to his cause. He was received with great demonstrations of joy, and a large army was soon collected for his support. He was, however, entirely defeated by William in the celebrated Battle of the Boyne (1690), and was again compelled to take refuge in France. The next year Ireland was entirely subdued; and the Scottish Highlanders, who had taken up arms in favor of James, were induced to submit to the government. In connection with the pacification of the Highlands, occurred the dreadful Massacre of Glencoe* (1692).

James II.

Ireland and Scotland.

79. The war with France still continued; and, in 1692, the French fleet was defeated by the combined English and Dutch fleets, under the command of Admiral Russell, in the famous battle of La Hogue (*hōg*).† This disastrous defeat decided the fate of James, and destroyed his hopes of ever regaining the English throne. The war, however, was not formally terminated until the treaty of Rys'wick (1697).‡ William, by the death of Mary, in 1694, became sole ruler, under the title of **William III.** His own death occurred in 1702. He was a man of great abilities, both for war and statesmanship, and a most excellent sovereign; but the austerity of his manners made him unpopular. The character of Mary was very amiable and exemplary.

French war.

William III.

* *McIan of Glencoe*, Chief of the McDonalds, had delayed taking the oath of allegiance to the king; and the enemies of the clan, taking advantage of this circumstance, obtained an order for its military execution. Accordingly, a body of soldiers entered the valley of Glencoe, and cruelly put to the sword all who failed to escape, including men, women, and children. The signing of this order has subjected King William to very severe censure. *Glencoe* is situated at Loch Leven, in the western part of Scotland.

† *Cape La Hogue* is in the northern part of France, a short distance east of Cherbourg, and is not to be confounded with *Cape La Hague*, to the west of Cherbourg.

‡ *Ryswick* is a small town in the western part of Holland, 35 miles southwest from Amsterdam.

80. Anne. This reign is almost wholly occupied with the War of the Spanish Succession, so called because it was waged against Louis XIV. of France, who, in the prosecution of his ambitious schemes, attempted to obtain control of Spain by placing one of his own relatives on the throne of that country. This had led, in 1701, to the formation of a league, called the Grand Alliance, between England, Holland, and Germany, the object of which was to check the encroachments of the French king. Louis XIV. had given additional cause of complaint to William by acknowledging, on the death of James II., the son of the latter king of England (1701). War, for which preparations had been already made, was formally declared against France shortly after the accession of Queen Anne, who determined to pursue the policy of King William. The chief command of the army was conferred on the Duke of Marl'borough (1702).*

War.

Grand Alliance.

PRINCE EUGENE.

81. During the first campaign, Marlborough made some conquests in Flanders; and, in the next, he defeated the French and Bavarians in the memorable battle of Blenheim †

* John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was the son of a Cavalier, who was in high favor with the Duke of York; and he married a young lady who was the special friend and favorite of Anne. When, therefore, the latter ascended the throne, she was so much under the influence of Lady Marlborough and the duke, her husband, that these were regarded as virtually almost the reigning sovereigns, Prince George of Denmark making no interference in English affairs. The correspondence of the queen and her favorite was of the most intimate and confidential character, and was carried on under the names of Mrs. Morley and Mrs. Freeman, the latter name being assumed by the duchess.

† *Blenheim* is a small village in Bavaria, on the Danube, 23 miles W. N. W of Augsburg.

(*blen'hime*) (1704). The celebrated Prince Eugene* commanded the imperial troops in this battle. During the same year, the English fleet captured Gibraltar; and this strong fortress has ever since remained in the possession of Great Britain. In 1706, Marlborough gained another brilliant victory over the French at Ramillies (*ram'e-leez*), and by means of it made almost an entire conquest of Flanders. The French also received the same year a terrible overthrow from Prince Eugene, at Tu'rin. The year 1708 was signalized by another great victory over the French at Ou'den-ar-de, which was followed, the next year, by the terrific battle of Malplaquet (*mal-plah'ka*), in which the allied army, under Marlborough, routed the French, but with the dreadful loss of 20,000 men. This decided victory finished the campaign in Flanders (1709).

Victories of Marlborough.

82. Shortly afterward, Marlborough, being accused of dishonest practices in connection with the army contracts and accounts, was dismissed by the queen from all his appointments. The parliament also having passed a vote of censure of his conduct, he retired from England in disgust, and took up his abode in the Netherlands.† Peace was concluded with France by the treaty of Utrecht (*u'trekt*), in 1713. The following year the queen died. She was very popular, receiving the title of the Good Queen Anne; but, according to some authorities, she was full of prejudices, easily influenced by flattery, and blindly guided by her female favorites. Her reign was not only distinguished for military achievements, but was charac-

Dismissal of Marlborough.

Death of Anne.

* Prince Eugene was born in Paris in 1663. He was the son of Eugene Maurice, Count of Soissons, and of Olympia Mancini, niece of Cardinal Mazarin. He entered the service of the emperor, and soon gained great distinction, especially in the wars with the Turks. He died in 1736. He was small in stature, simple in dress and manner, and kind-hearted in his treatment of his soldiers.

† Marlborough was afterward restored to his position in the army. He died in 1722. He is said to have been so illiterate that he could not write his native language with tolerable correctness. Avarice was his greatest weakness.

terized to such an extent for progress in literature, that it has been styled the "Augustan Age of England." The chief political event was the "Constitutional Union of England and Scotland," in 1707. These two countries, since the accession of James I., had acknowledged one sovereign, each having its own separate legislature; but, since the union of 1707, they have both sent representatives to the same parliament. Queen Anne was the last sovereign of the *House of Stuart.*

Character and reign.

STATE OF SOCIETY IN ENGLAND,

During the Period of the Stuarts (1603–1714).

83. This period is particularly noted for the rapid transitions that occurred in moral and religious sentiments among the people, as well as their social manners. Party animosity was so intense that no marriages, or alliances of any kind, were permitted between the members of the hostile factions. "Your friends, the Cavaliers," said a parliamentarian to a royalist, "are very dissolute and debauched." "True," replied the royalist, "they have the infirmities of men; but your friends, the Roundheads, have the vices of devils—tyranny, rebellion, and spiritual pride."

Party strife.

84. The Cavaliers were indeed gay in their manners and dress, being commonly men of birth and fortune, and they thus presented a marked contrast to the gloomy fanaticism of the Roundheads. The rigid severity of the Puritans permitted no recreations, except such as were afforded by the singing of hymns and psalms. Plays, dances, and all other merry-makings were sinful frivolities: horse-racing and bear-baiting—popular diversions of the time—were wicked enormities. Hence, Colonel Hewson with pious zeal marched his regiment into London and killed all the bears; on which incident *Butler* based a part of his burlesque poem, styled "Hudibras."

Cavaliers.

Puritans.

85. During this period arose also the Quakers or Friends —a sect founded by George Fox, who was born in 1624. He was by trade a shoemaker; but feeling a strong impulse toward spiritual contemplations, he abandoned this occupation, and wandered about the country, preaching the doctrines which had been suggested to his mind during his solitary meditations. Proselytes were soon gained, and a sect formed, peculiar not only in their religious views, but in all their social habits and customs. Their zeal was soon tried by bitter persecution. They were thrown into prison—sometimes into mad-houses; they were pilloried; they were whipped; they were burned in the face; and their tongues bored with red-hot irons; but nothing could overcome their fortitude, or quench their enthusiasm. Driven out of England, they vainly sought an asylum among their former brethren in affliction, the Puritans of New England; but, under William Penn, found it in the wilds and among the wild men of Pennsylvania, as the Catholics, under Lord Baltimore, had previously done in Maryland.

Quakers.

CAVALIER AND PURITAN.

86. Commerce and navigation flourished greatly during the first part of the reign of Charles I. The trade to Guinea, the Levant, and the East Indies was quite large; immense quantities of cloth were annually exported to Turkey; and the English possessed almost the monopoly of the traffic with Spain. Interrupted during the civil wars, commerce soon recovered after the Restoration, and received additional encouragement from the losses sustained by the Dutch. The trade with the American colonies soon became considerable. At the close of the century, about five hundred vessels were employed in this trade

Commerce and navigation.

and that with the West Indies. Of these some were engaged in the slave-trade. Tea and coffee were introduced from the East, but for a long time were so expensive that they were used only as luxuries. Tobacco became extensively an article of commerce, notwithstanding "The Counterblaste to Tobacco," written by James I., who had a great dislike to its

SHIPS OF WAR IN THE TIME OF CHARLES II.

use. Whale-ships visited Greenland and Spitzbergen; and Madras and Bombay became important centers of the East Indian trade.

87. Next to the capital, the chief seaport was Bristol, and Norwich the chief manufacturing town. Manchester, now the great center of the cotton manufacture, was then a small town of about 6,000 inhabitants; Leeds, the great woolen mart, was but a little larger; Sheffield and Birmingham were very small towns; and Liverpool, probably, did not contain 200 seamen. The population of London at the death of Charles II. is estimated at half a million.

Chief towns.

The streets, narrow, dirty, unpaved, and not lighted till the last year of that monarch's reign, were infested with ruffians and robbers, against whom the watchmen, generally old and feeble men, could afford no protection.

88. Manufacturing industry began to assume that prominence in England which it at present possesses. The cotton manufacture was commenced at Manchester, and the art of dyeing woolen cloth was introduced from Flanders, thus saving the nation vast sums of money. New manufactures were also established in iron, brass, silk, paper, etc. The trade with India and the Levant led to the introduction of many articles of luxury, both in dress and furniture. Carpets, from being used only as covers for tables, came gradually into their present use; although during most of this period rushes or matting constituted the only covering used for floors. The manufacture of oil-cloth was commenced in 1660. The Duke of Buckingham introduced the making of glass from Venice.

Manufactures.

Articles of luxury.

89. The Stuarts were patrons of the fine arts. The value of pictures is said to have doubled in Europe in consequence of the competition of Charles I. and Philip IV. of Spain to obtain them. The distinguished Dutch painters, Van Dyke and Rubens, were invited into England, and received great attention from the Court. Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren, the renowned architects, flourished during this period. The former built the beautiful banqueting-house at Whitehall; the latter is especially celebrated as the designer of St. Paul's. In London alone, fifty-one churches were erected from Wren's designs.

Fine arts.

90. During the reign of Charles II., there arose a galaxy of great men, distinguished for their researches in every branch of knowledge. Boyle, by his improvements in the air-pump, was enabled to make many valuable experiments on the nature and properties of the air;

Science.

Wallis and Hooke made some valuable improvements in optical instruments; Flamsteed and Halley were eminent astronomers—the former noted for the catalogue of stars which he made; the latter as the first to predict the return of a comet. Harvey also announced his famous discovery of the circulation of the blood (1628). Above all, however, towered the sublime genius of Newton, the discoverer of the law of universal gravitation.

91. The number of printing-presses in the kingdom was quite small; and, consequently, books were scarce and dear.

Books.

A taste for reading had, however, become much more general; and there were many distinguished writers in almost every branch of literature. In the first part of the reign of James I., the drama continued to be enriched by the contributions of Shakespeare, who died in 1616. Beaumont, Fletcher, and Philip Massinger were noted dramatists of this reign, with Ben Jonson (1574–1637), who was poet-laureate.* Sir Walter Raleigh wrote, while in prison, the *History of the World;* and Lord Bacon published those great philosophical works, *The Advancement of Learning* and the *Novum Organum* (New Instrument), which changed the methods of scientific investigation. Bacon is sometimes called the "Father of the Inductive Philosophy."†

Literature.

SHAKESPEARE.

* *Laureate* means *crowned with laurel*, in allusion to the ancient practice of thus rewarding eminent poets. Traces of this appointment are found as early as the reign of Henry III. The office was made a patent one by Charles I., who fixed the salary at £100 a year, and a tierce of wine.

† "The power and compass of a mind which could form such a plan beforehand, and trace not merely the outline, but many of the most minute ramifications of sciences which did not yet exist, must be an object of admiration to all succeeding ages."—*Prof. Playfair.*

92. In the next period, including the reigns of Charles I. and Charles II., the most prominent poets were Sir William Davenant, who succeeded Ben Jonson as poet-laureate; Abraham Cowley, who at his death (1667) ranked as the first poet of England; John Milton (1608–1674), the illustrious author of *Paradise Lost;* Robert Herrick, one of the most charming of the early English lyric poets; and Samuel Butler, the author of the satirical poem *Hudibras.* The famous poet and dramatist John Dryden (1631–1700), who was poet-laureate, belongs to the close of this period. The other most noted contributors to the drama were Otway, Congreve, and Wycherly, who lived during the reign of Charles II., in which the drama, taking its character from the court, was shamefully immoral.

Noted writers.

BACON.

93. The most celebrated prose writers of the period were Thomas Fuller, the quaint and witty historian, divine, and essayist; Lord Clarendon, the famous statesman, who wrote the *History of the Rebellion,* one of the most interesting historical works in the language; John Bunyan, the author of *Pilgrim's Progress;* and Jeremy Taylor, the writer of *Holy Living and Dying.* To the "Augustan period" of Queen Anne belong the celebrated essayists Addison and Steele, the principal contributors to the *Spectator;* De Foe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe;* Alexander Pope, the author of many beautiful poems and the translator of Homer; and Jonathan Swift, the author of *Gulliver's Travels,* and other satirical works. The last-mentioned writers belong in part to the succeeding period.

Noted writers.

Augustan period.

SECTION III.

The House of Brunswick.

94. George I. was the son of the Duke of Brunswick, Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, granddaughter of James I. He was fifty-four years of age when he commenced to reign, and never acquired any sympathy for the English people or their institutions. The Stuart party, who favored the placing of James the Pretender, son of James II., on the throne (hence called *Jac'o-bites*), excited an insurrection (1715); but the rebels were defeated; and many of their leaders, among them the Earl of Derwentwater, were executed. The Pretender, sometimes styled the Chevalier of St. George, escaped to France. George I. died of apoplexy while on a visit to his native country (1727).

Jacobites.

95. George II. succeeded his father at the age of forty-four years. Sir Robert Walpole, who had been prime minister during a large part of the previous reign, was continued in office, and administered the government, in a manner conducive to the peace and prosperity of the country, till his resignation, in 1742. A difficulty occurred with Spain during his administration, partly on account of a dispute with respect to the boundary of Georgia, an American colony which had been settled by General Oglethorpe in 1733, and named after the king; and several of the Spanish cities in South America were taken by the English fleets. It was during this war that Anson's famous expedition occurred, which lasted nearly four years, and in which this admiral sailed round the world (1740–1744).

Robert Walpole.

Spanish war.

96. England, in the mean time, became involved in a continental war. On the death of Charles VI., emperor of Germany (1740), Louis XV., king of France, setting aside the hereditary claims of Maria Theresa (*te-re'zah*), the em-

peror's daughter, had caused the Elector of Ba-va'ri-a to be placed on the imperial throne, and had raised a large army for his defense. Maria Theresa taking refuge among the Hungarians, was acknowledged by them as their queen; while England, supporting the claims of the Austrian princess, was involved in a war with France. This is called in history the War of the Austrian Succession. The most important events of it were the defeat of the French at Dettingen (*det'ting-en*),* by the allied army of the English and Germans, in part under the command of George II. in person (1743); and the defeat of the allies (England, Holland, and Austria), under the Duke of Cumberland, by the French, under Marshal Saxe (*sax*) (1745), in the memorable battle of Fontenoy (*fon-ta-nwah'*) †. The operations of the war also extended to the American colonies; and Louisburg, an important French fortress, called, from its strength, the "Gibraltar of America," was captured (1745).

War with France.

97. While these events were in progress, an unsuccessful attempt to invade England and overturn the government was made by Prince Charles, grandson of James II. He effected a landing in Scotland, though without any military support (1745). Being soon joined by a small army of Highlanders, he defeated the royal forces; and, having taken Edinburgh and some other cities, he caused his father to be proclaimed king of Scotland, under the title of James VIII. He next marched into England, but was soon compelled to retreat, being pursued by the royal army, under the Duke of Cumberland, second son of George II. The two armies at length met at Cul-lo'den; and a battle was fought, in which the Pretender and his adherents were entirely defeated (1746). This was the last battle fought on the soil of Great Britain, and closed the

Prince Charles.

Culloden.

* *Dettingen* is a village of Bavaria, on the Main River, east of Frankfort.

† *Fontenoy* is a village of Belgium, 43 miles southwest from Brussels, about half-way between Oudenarde and Malplaquet. (See Map, page 380.)

struggle made by the Stuarts to regain their lost throne. Prince Charles wandered in disguise through the country for five months; but, at length, succeeded in effecting his escape to France.

98. A treaty of peace was made with France at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, by which Maria Theresa's claim to the throne was confirmed; but the war was soon after renewed in consequence of disputes respecting the boundary of the French and English territories in America. In 1755, General Braddock was defeated by the French in an expedition against Fort du Quesne (*doo-kane'*); but General Johnson gained a victory over the French and Indians at the head of Lake George, Baron Dieskau (*dees'-kow'*), their commander, being wounded and taken prisoner. An expedition under Colonel Monckton (*monk'tun*), the same year, drove the French from Nova Scotia. In 1759, General Wolfe succeeded in reaching the Plains of Abraham with his army, and defeated the French forces under the Marquis of Montcalm (*mont-kam'*). Both generals were mortally wounded. Quebec capitulated after this victory, which virtually gave to the English possession of Canada.

French war.

Wolfe.

99. Meanwhile, England had taken part in the famous Seven Years' War, brought on by a coalition of France and several of the other European states, against Frederick the Great of Prussia. Principally with the object of defending the Electorate of Hanover, England formed an alliance with the Prussian monarch; and, under the able administration of William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham, the government displayed great vigor and enterprise. The want of success, however, of the Duke of Cumberland enabled the French to overrun Hanover (1757), which the king was so indignant that he treated his son with the greatest coldness. Offended by this treatment, the Earl of Culloden resigned all his offices, and went into retirement. Hanover was recovered the next year after its

Seven Years' War.

conquest, and important advantages were gained by Frederick. Lord Clive also won a series of splendid victories over the French in India, achieving the conquest of Bengal.* Before the war was brought to a close,

Lord Clive.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY.

What is the situation of: BENGAL? DECCAN? BOMBAY? MADRAS? AFGHANISTAN? SCINDE? PUNJAB? NEPAUL? BOOTAN? Calcutta? Benares? Lucknow? Meerut? Delhi? Cawnpore? Arcot? Tanjore? Pondicherry? Lahore? Cabool?

the king died, and was succeeded by his grandson, under the title of George III. (1760).

* "Clive was indeed, as Chatham once called him, a 'Heaven-born general,' who, with no military training, had shown consummate military genius. With nearly as little study of politics, he displayed nearly as great abilities for govern-

eorge III. was twenty-two years old when he as-
e throne, and was the first king of the House of
k that was born in England. Pitt soon afterward
retired from the government, and was succeeded
by Lord Bute, a man of indifferent merit, but an
favorite of the king. The arms of Great Britain and
s continued to be successful in Europe, notwithstand-
enemies were strengthened by the accession of Spain;
government desired peace, which was finally attained
Treaty of Paris, made in 1763. The most important
conquests made by the English during this long
war were those in North America and India. In
tter country, the genius of Clive had laid the founda-
of the British power so firmly, that the French could
r afterward regain their influence.

ests.

01. Shortly after this peace, the famous *Stamp Act* was
ed, for the purpose of raising a revenue in America
(1765). The measure was greatly opposed in
Parliament by the Earl of Chatham and others,
as impolitic and unjust; but the government in-
ted on its right to tax the colonies; and the latter, after
esistance of ten years, were finally driven into the War of
Revolution, which commenced at Lexington, in Massa-
setts (April 19, 1775).* The next year, the thirteen

merican
volution.

it · Energy, which perhaps, of all human qualities, is the one most conducive
ccess, energy and fearlessness, were peculiarly his own. Whatever gratitude
n owes to her Cortes, or Portugal to her Albuquerque, this, and in its results
e than this, is due from England to Clive. Had he never been born, I do not
eve that we should, at least in that generation, have conquered Hindostan; had
ived longer, I doubt if we should, at least in that generation, have lost North
erica." *Lord Mahon's History of England.*

'live's conduct in India, a short time after his return to England, in 1767, was
ught under parliamentary censure, and, smarting with disgrace, he committed
id · 1774.

"In order to enforce the monstrous claim of taxing a whole people without
r consent, there was waged against America a war ill-conducted, unsuccessful,
, what is far worse, accompanied by cruelties disgraceful to a civilized nation.
his may be added, that an immense trade was nearly annihilated; every branch

colonies, through their representatives in Congress, declared their independence (July 4), which, after a determined struggle of nearly seven years, they successfully achieved, the British general Cornwallis being compelled to surrender his army to George Washington, at Yorktown (October 19, 1781). Previous to this event, the Americans under General Gates had compelled the surrender of a British army under Burgoyne, at Saratoga (1777); and the French king, Louis XVI., taking advantage of this success, had acknowledged the independence of the colonies. A war, therefore, ensued between England and France, which continued until 1783, when a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, one of the conditions of which was, that the independence of the American colonies should be acknowledged by England.

WASHINGTON.

102. During this period, important advantages had been gained by the British in India under Warren Hastings; but the measures which he adopted to obtain money, in order to make the large remittances expected by the East India Company, were characterized by great oppression and injustice against the natives and their rulers. On his return to England, articles of impeachment were presented against him in Parliament by the celebrated Edmund Burke, and the trial that ensued is one of the most memorable in history. It commenced in 1788, and lasted till 1795, resulting in the acquit-

Warren Hastings.

of commerce was thrown into confusion; we were disgraced in the eyes of Europe; we incurred an expense of £140,000,000; and we lost by far the most valuable colonies any nation has ever possessed."—*Buckle's History of Civilization.*

[illegible] of Hastings. This trial is not only remarkable for its length, but for the brilliant displays of oratory to which it gave occasion, on the part of the managers of the impeachment, Burke, Sheridan, Fox, Windham, and others—a galaxy of great men unsurpassed for splendor in the annals of Great Britain.*

103. Meanwhile the great French revolution had broken out (1789), and in its progress all Europe was convulsed. The British Government, under the administration of William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, took an active part against the revolutionists in France. After the execution of Louis XVI., in 1793, Great Britain, Holland, Russia, and Spain formed a coalition to restore the monarchy in France. Few victories were, however, gained over the French armies; but the English fleets, under Nelson and others, acquired great glory. In 1798, Nelson fought the battle of the Nile, in which he destroyed the ships that had conveyed Napoleon and his army to Egypt; and, in 1801, he fought the battle of Copenhagen, and partially destroyed the Danish fleet. This had the effect to prevent a threatened alliance of the northern powers against England. In this year (1801), Ireland was constitutionally united to Great Britain, its legislature being abolished.

French war.

Nelson's victory.

104. An important victory was gained (1801) by Sir Ralph Abercromby over the French forces left by Napoleon in Egypt to menace the power of Great Britain in the East; after which a treaty of peace was concluded at Amiens (*am'e-enz*) with the French Government, then under the control of Napoleon as First Consul (1802); but the next year hostilities were resumed, and England was threatened with a French invasion. It was during this war that Nelson gained his most splendid victory,

Treaty of Amiens.

* [illegible]ings lived twenty-four years after his acquittal. His death occurred on [illegible] August, 1819, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

over the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Traf-al-gar'; but the great admiral was mortally wounded in the action (1805).*

105. In 1808, the Peninsular War was commenced, being caused by the unjust attempt of Napoleon, then emperor of France, to place his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain, in opposition to the wishes of the people of that country. Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward created Duke of Wellington, was sent with an army to prevent the consummation of this project; and he defeated the French (1808) in the decisive battle of Vimeira (*ve-ma'e-rah*).† Sir John Moore, who had been sent to co-operate with the Spaniards against the French, was compelled to retreat, receiving no aid from the inhabitants. He afterward fell in the battle which took place at Co-run'na, where the French were repulsed; and the English troops made their escape from the country, with the assistance of the fleet (1809).

Peninsular War.

106. Under Wellington the war was continued in the Peninsula until 1814; and the victories at Ta-la-ve'ra (1809), at Sa-la-man'ca (1812), and Vit-to'ri-a (1813) reflected great glory on the British general's name. Meanwhile Great Britain had been active in the opposition made by the great European powers against the ambitious schemes of the Emperor Napoleon; and, both by her counsels and pecuniary as well as military aid, contributed not a little to his downfall in 1814. During this period war had also been waged with the United

Wellington.

Fall of Napoleon.

* "Nelson's whole career, from his first entrance into the navy to the battle of Trafalgar, exhibited a pattern of every manly virtue. Bold in conception, cautious in construction, firm in execution, cool in danger, he was the most successful, because the most profound and intrepid of leaders. The most triumphant death is that of the martyr; the most splendid, that of the hero in the hour of victory; and if the chariot and horses of fire had been vouchsafed for Nelson's translation, he could scarcely have departed in a brighter blaze of glory."—*Alison's History of Europe.*

† *Vimeira* is a small town near the western coast of Portugal, about 30 miles northwest from Lisbon. (See Map No. XIX.)

States, brought on principally by the unjust claims of Great Britain to the right of searching American vessels for deserters and British seamen, in order that she might seize them or impress them into her service. This war was formally closed by the treaty of Ghent (December 14, 1814).

United States war.

107. Napoleon, escaping from Elba, to which he had been banished, and resuming the throne of France, again roused the European nations against him. This led to the memorable battle of Waterloo, in which Wellington gained his most splendid victory (June 18, 1815). Thus was ended the great struggle which for nearly twenty-five years had been made by Great Britain to check the conquests of the French, and preserve the "balance of power" in Europe. To accomplish this end immense sacrifices of men and money had been made, the national debt having been increased to nearly nine hundred millions sterling.

Waterloo.

George III. died in 1820, after a reign of sixty years—the longest in English history. It was distinguished not only for its remarkable military events, but for its progress in commerce, science, and the useful arts, for the general diffusion of knowledge, and for its splendid productions of literary genius. The private character of George III., in every relation of life, was worthy of esteem; but his moderate abilities, narrow views, and obstinacy as a king, have subjected his name to a great deal of obloquy and contempt.

Reign of George III.

108. George IV., who succeeded his father at the age of fifty-eight, had been noted for his profligacy and extravagance in the previous part of his life. He was a man of polished manners, but was perfectly unprincipled and heartless. As Prince Regent he had been virtually king for ten years before his accession, George III. having become incapable of governing on account of insanity. *Almost the* first act of the new monarch was an attempt to

Character.

obtain a divorce from his wife, Caroline of Brunswick. The accusations brought against her were believed to be unfounded, and popular sympathy was strongly in her favor; so that when, on account of the able defense of her by Henry Brougham [afterward Lord Brougham (*broo'-um*)], the king failed in his object, the public joy was so great that there was a general illumination. She died a short time afterward.

Queen Caroline.

109. The Greeks having for some years struggled to throw off the Turkish yoke, finally secured the aid of England, France, and Russia, whose combined fleets defeated and destroyed the Turkish and Egyptian fleet in the battle of Navarino (*nah-vah-re'no*) (1827). By this event the independence of Greece was achieved; after which it was erected into a separate kingdom, the crown being conferred upon Prince Otho of Bavaria. During this contest Lord Byron went to Greece to render assistance to the oppressed people; but he did not live to witness the triumph of the cause, dying at Mis-so-lon'ghi (*-ghe*) in 1824. Among the most important events of this reign was the removal of civil and political disabilities from the Catholics, a measure greatly aided by the efforts of the great Irish orator and patriot Daniel O'Connell. The death of George IV. occurred in 1830; and he was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, with the title of William IV.

Greece and Turkey.

Byron.

O'Connell.

110. William IV. Near the beginning of this reign, measures of parliamentary reform were loudly called for by the people, and a Reform Bill was brought in by Lord John Russell, which passed in 1832. The effect of this law was to extend the right of suffrage, and distribute the representation more equitably among the different parts of the kingdom. The year 1834 is memorable for the abolition of slavery throughout all the British colonies. The sum of £20,000,000 was

Reform Bill.

Abolition of slavery.

awarded by Parliament to the planters as a compensation for the loss of the slaves emancipated; and nearly three-fourths of a million of human beings were set free. William's reign was terminated by his death in 1837; but, brief as it was, it was replete with beneficent measures which have made it dear to the memory of the English people.

111. Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, and niece of William IV., succeeded the latter on the throne, which she has continued to occupy up to the present time (1882). The connection between Great Britain and Hanover, which had lasted 123 years, was dissolved on her accession, since the laws of the latter country exclude females from the throne. Her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, accordingly succeeded William IV. as king of Hanover. In 1837, an insurrection broke out in Canada. Disturbances were also caused by the Chartists, an association of radical reformers, who demanded a "new charter," embodying universal suffrage, vote by ballot, and the entire abolition of property qualification of members of Parliament. Great meetings of the people were held, at one of which as

Hanover.

YORK MINSTER.

Chartists.

many as 200,000 persons were computed to have been present. The demands of the Chartists being refused, riots ensued, which, however, were soon put down (1839). The next year the queen was married to Prince Albert, of Saxe-Co'burg-Go'tha (one of the German states). A portion of the famous York Minster, among the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in the world, was partly consumed by fire this year (1840), but was restored at a cost of $100,000.*

Queen's marriage.

112. The prominent events in the next thirteen years were the insurrection in Cabul (*kah-bool'*), in which the English were driven out of Af-ghan-is-tan', and the retreating army nearly all perished (1841); with the recapture of the city in 1842; the reduction of Scinde (*sind*), a district on the lower Indus, by Sir Charles Na'pi-er (1843); and the war with the Sikhs of the Pun-jab', who, after a severe contest, were subdued (1849). (See map, page 511.) The most important measure of Parliament was the repeal of the corn laws, by which the country was opened to the free importation of grain (1846).

Cabul.

Scinde.

Corn laws.

113. The Russians having seized upon the Danubian principalities, Wal-la'chi-a and Mol-da'vi-a, England formed an alliance with France, to protect Turkey from the encroachments of the czar (1853). This led to the Crim-e'an War, during which the allied fleets blockaded the harbor of Sebastopol, and, after a siege of eleven months, captured the city (1855). During this siege were fought the celebrated battles of Al'ma, Balakla'va, and Inkerman', in the second of which the "Six Hundred" made their

Crimean War.

* This structure was built chiefly in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Its length is 524 feet, and its extreme breadth 250 feet, being considerably longer than Westminster Abbey or St. Paul's Cathedral. It was set on fire, in 1829, by a maniac; and the repairs from this conflagration were not completed, when, through the carelessness of a workman, that in 1840 occurred, destroying the southwest tower, with its fine peal of bells, and the roof of the nave.

famous charge. The fortifications defending the city were of immense extent and strength, and the French greatly distinguished themselves by the vigor and gallantry of their assaults. The Mal'akoff and Redan', two of the strongest works, were stormed by them, after the English troops had failed in the attempt. Peace was signed with Russia in 1856.

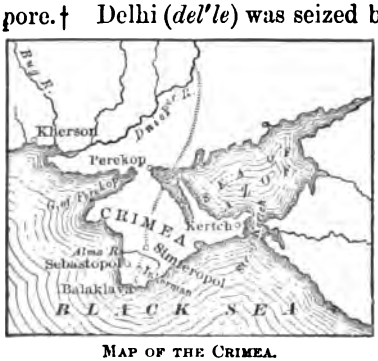
Oude.

In the same year, the kingdom of Oude (*owd*) was annexed to British India; and a war with Persia, after the taking of Bushire (*boo-sheer'*) and other towns, was ended by a treaty (1857).

114. The year 1857 is remarkable for the Indian mutiny, which broke out at Mee'rut,* and was followed by the massacre

Indian mutiny.

of the English officers and residents, by the inhuman monster Nana Sahib (*sah'eeb*) at Cawnpore.† Delhi (*del'le*) was seized by the Sepoys (native troops); but was retaken after a two months' siege and the most desperate fighting. At Luck'now † 50,000 rebels besieged an English force of less than 500 persons for nearly three months; but they were at last relieved by General Hav'e-lock, who with a small force achieved several victories over the rebel armies. Nana Sahib was defeated by Sir Col'in Campbell, and the insurrection was subdued (1859). The dreadful atrocities perpetrated on men, women, and children during this war by the native troops, and the horrible punishments afterward inflicted on the latter by the British, find scarcely a



MAP OF THE CRIMEA.

* *Meerut* is situated about 35 miles northeast from *Delhi*, a noted city of Hindostan on the Jumna, an affluent of the Ganges. (See map, page 511.)

† *Cawnpore* and *Lucknow* are important towns in Hindostan, the former on the Ganges, the latter on a tributary to it. They are some distance east of Delhi.

parallel in history. The East India Company was deprived of its power at the close of this war, and the government vested wholly in the queen, being administered by a viceroy. Later the queen was by act of Parliament proclaimed Empress of India (1876).

115. Wars were also waged against the Chinese. The first was caused by the seizure of opium imported into China contrary to her laws by British merchants. At the close, China was compelled to cede Hong Kong * to Great Britain, and to open five of her seaports to British commerce, besides paying twenty-one millions of dollars as indemnity for the expenses of the war (1842). In 1856 hostilities were renewed; and Canton was bombarded and occupied. Some time afterward the combined forces of the French and English took Pekin, and the emperor was compelled to flee. The Chinese then submitted to the demands of the English, one of which was that China should be open to the commerce of the world, and that a British minister should be permitted to reside at Pekin (1860).

Chinese wars.

VICTORIA.

116. Toward the close of 1861, the British nation was filled with mourning by the sudden death of Prince Albert, who, by his earnest efforts in behalf of useful enterprises and his many virtues, had endeared himself to the whole people. Other interesting events in the following period were the laying of the Atlantic cable (1866); the passage of the Second Reform Bill (1867), by

Death of Prince Albert.

* *Hong Kong* is an island at the mouth of the estuary which leads to Canton, in the southeastern part of China.

which the elective franchise was greatly extended; the Abyssinian war, in which King Theodore was defeated (1868); the disestablishment of the Irish Church (1869); and the passage of the first Irish land bill (1870), designed to regulate the relations between landlords and tenants, and giving to the latter several privileges.

Other events.

117. In the same year (1870), popular education in Great Britain was placed on a more efficient basis by the passage of a law under which school boards were elected throughout the country, and great improvements effected. Later a war broke out with the Ashantees in Africa, growing out of their attacks upon a tribe friendly to the English (1872). Under Sir Garnet Wolseley (*wool'zlee*), the English army defeated the barbarous king, and burned his capital, Coomassie. This was soon followed by a treaty of peace (1873). In 1872, the Ballot Act was passed, which prescribed a closed ballot for members of parliament. Dr. Livingstone, the celebrated African explorer, died this year, in Central Africa, and his remains were taken to England and buried with great ceremony in Westminster Abbey. In 1875, Great Britain purchased from the Khedive of Egypt a one-half ownership of the Suez Canal, with the view to protect its route to India.

Education.

Ashantee war.

Dr. Livingstone.

Suez Canal.

118. In 1877, a British force entered and took possession of the Transvaal Republic, in South Africa. This subsequently led to a difficulty with the Boers, living in the Transvaal, by whom a British force was disastrously defeated (1880); but the matter was afterward amicably settled, a treaty being made with the Boers. The British interests were involved in the war between Russia and Turkey—the Eastern War of 1877–8—and, during the negotiations under the administration of the English prime minister, the Earl of Beaconsfield, Turkey ceded the government of Cyprus to Great Britain,

Transvaal.

Eastern war.

which cession was afterward confirmed by the Treaty of Berlin (1878).

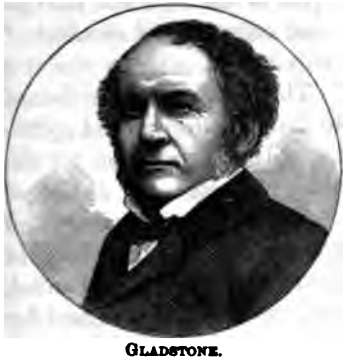
119. In 1878 occurred the war in Afghanistan, in which the country was invaded by the British from India, some of its chief cities occupied, and full submission to British demands compelled. In the same year a war broke out with the Zulus (*zoo'looz*), a fierce and barbarous tribe of South Africa; and, in January, 1879, a British force was attacked by the savages, and almost destroyed. This led to decided measures, and, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, the war was brought to speedy termination, many of the villages of the Zulus being burned and their king captured (1879). In a skirmish in this war, the French Prince Imperial, son of Napoleon III., who had gone out to Africa to witness the operations of the war, was killed. The administration of Gladstone* succeeded that of Beaconsfield,† and was signalized by the passage of the Irish Land Bill (1881), rendered necessary by disturbances in Ireland, growing out of the oppressive relations existing between the landlords and the peasant tenantry. Some of the evils complained of were removed by the measure which the minister introduced and carried through Parliament, after a great struggle.

Zulu war.

Prince Imperial.

Gladstone.

Ireland.



GLADSTONE.

* *William E. Gladstone*, celebrated not only as a statesman and orator, but as a scholar and author, was born in 1809. He has been connected with some of the most important measures of the British Government during the last thirty years.

† *The Earl of Beaconsfield*, better known as Benjamin Disraeli, son of the celebrated writer Isaac Disraeli, was born in 1805, of a Jewish family. He won distinction both in the field of literature and politics. His course in Parliament was a very distinguished one, both as a Tory leader and minister. In 1877, he became a member of the House of Lords with his title as earl. He died in 1881.

[illegible] OF SOCIETY IN ENGLAND,

[illegible] Period, from 1714 to the Present Time.

[illegible] period of the first three Georges (1714–[illegible] Government assumed a settled character, [illegible] as the people advanced in intelligence, be[illegible] more and more dependent upon their [illegible] ruled through his ministers, who could [illegible] only as long as they retained the support of [illegible] The royal authority in England has ever since [illegible] to public opinion. In the present century [illegible] illustrated by the repeal of the corn and naviga[illegible] parliamentary reform, and other liberal measures.*

[illegible]. During the first part of this period, religion was at a [illegible] ebb among all classes. The clergy, often ordained without any regard to their intellectual and spiritual attainments, but simply as a provision for the [illegible] sons of aristocratic families, neglected the duties of [illegible] sacred calling to indulge in fox-hunting, gaming, and the pleasures of the table. The preaching of George Whitefield † and John Wesley ‡ did much to infuse into the public mind a higher regard for spiritual matters. The religious society which they founded received, at first as a nickname, the appellation of "Method-

Whitefield and Wesley.

* The emancipation of the Catholics from the political disabilities under which they suffered so long, and the admission of Jews to Parliament (1858), are additional indications of the progress of enlightened sentiments, and the extinction of those prejudices which are the offspring of ignorance and bigotry.

† *George Whitefield* was particularly celebrated for the fervid eloquence with which he preached to the people. He was ordained a minister of the Church of England, but subsequently joined Wesley and the Methodists. He spent part of his life in America, where he died while on a visit to the churches in New England (1770).

‡ *John Wesley*, the celebrated founder of Methodism, was an ordained minister of the Church of England, but soon became disgusted with the coldness and want of spirituality which prevailed among both clergy and laity. Like Whitefield, he was a powerful popular preacher, and like him, also, he preached to the people of both hemispheres, residing some years in the colonies. For more than half a century he exercised the most complete authority over his numerous followers both in England and America. He died in 1791, at the age of eighty-eight.

ists," from the strictness of their religious principles and observances. It rapidly gathered within its ranks vast multitudes, particularly of the middle and lower orders of the people. The writings of Watts, Doddridge, and others also contributed to raise the religious tone of society. Sunday-schools were founded about the close of 1781 by Robert Raikes. In later years, the progress of pure religious sentiment has been strikingly manifested by the establishment of very many societies for the propagation of Christianity, the diffusion of religious knowledge, and the philanthropic aid as well as instruction of the ignorant, the destitute, and the suffering in all parts of the kingdom.

Christianity.

122. Much has also been done to promote the cause of general education by improvements in the national school system, especially by the important school law of 1870, supplemented by others passed in 1873 and 1876, by means of which elementary education throughout the kingdom has been greatly extended and facilitated. Various educational institutions have been established, of every grade, including colleges for the education of women (ladies' colleges), and schools of science. The most important institutions of a higher character are the University of Durham, founded in 1832; the University of London, chartered in 1836; and University College, Bristol, established in 1876, for the instruction of both sexes.

Education.

123. Commerce and navigation made vast and rapid strides during the period of the Georges. The trade with the American colonies had become very considerable previous to their independence; but with the States it was much more extensive, the principal imports from them being tobacco, rice, and cotton. The importation of the last-mentioned article from America commenced in 1770, the first shipment being about 2000 pounds. At the close of the period the annual import amounted to 120,000,000 pounds. The same product was also imported from Brazil and the East

Commerce and navigation.

Indies. The English West Indies exported large quantities of sugar, together with mahogany and logwood. The gradual introduction of *steam navigation* was a marked feature of the period. Experiments with the view to this application of the steam-engine had been early made; but it was not until nearly the end of the period that serviceable steam-vessels were constructed. In 1820 a line of steam-packets was established to ply between Holyhead and Dublin.*

Steam navigation.

124. The material progress made by the nation during Queen Victoria's reign has been truly amazing. The achievements in science and art perhaps surpass those of all the preceding centuries combined, and bring to the poorest classes comforts and conveniences which could not previously have been enjoyed by kings and nobles. The country has been crossed in every direction by railroads of the very best construction; ocean steam-vessels have revolutionized commerce and navigation; the electric telegraph has brought every part of the kingdom into instant communication with all other parts of the civilized world; while the building of iron-clad war-steamers has rendered obsolete all former achievements in naval architecture, and changed entirely the character of maritime warfare.

Material progress.

125. In the industrial arts, many valuable inventions have been made. Previous to 1718, England was entirely dependent upon foreigners for silk thread; but in that year a large mill was erected at Derby for its manufacture, by Mr. Lombe, who had gone to Italy in the disguise of a common workman, and taken drawings of the silk-throwing machinery in use in that country. Immense quantities of organzine, or twisted, thread were thereafter pro-

Inventions.

* Robert Fulton, an American, in 1807, made the first successful voyage by steam from New York to Albany, in a steamboat called the *Clermont*. Five years later a steamboat was started on the Clyde by Henry Bell, a former associate of Fulton; and thus was commenced steam navigation in Great Britain.

duced. The cotton manufacture now took precedence of that of wool, which previously had been the chief material of English fabrics. This change was largely due to the carding-machine and the spinning-jenny invented by James Hargreaves,* but principally to the invention of the spinning-frame by Sir Richard Arkwright.† In 1771, Arkwright erected a large factory which was worked by water power. The World's Fair of 1851, and similar exhibitions since, have illustrated the progress of Great Britain in the industrial arts, including the inventions of machinery and mechanical appliances during the present century. She has occupied a leading position in this respect among the nations of the world. The metallic wares of Birmingham, the cutlery of Sheffield, the cotton fabrics of Manchester, and the various manufactured articles of Glasgow and other large towns, supply the markets of the world.

Industrial arts.

126. To all these branches of manufacturing industry a wonderful impulse was given in the latter part of the eighteenth century by the application of steam. James Watt‡ made his celebrated invention of the

Steam-engine.

* *James Hargreaves* was an illiterate artisan, supporting himself and family by spinning. In 1760 he invented the carding-machine as a substitute for carding by hand. The spinning-jenny, by which he was enabled to spin a large number of threads at the same time, was invented by accident in 1764. He died in 1768.

† *Richard Arkwright*, born in 1732, was originally a barber. In 1767 he devoted himself to making improvements in cotton-spinning; and the next year produced the spinning-frame, which consisted chiefly of two pairs of rollers, the first pair moving slowly in contact, and passing the cotton to the other pair, which revolved with such increased velocity as to draw out the thread to the required degree of fineness. He was at first very poor, and incurred the displeasure of the artisans by his labor-saving machines. He however rapidly rose to opulence and fame, and received in 1786 the honor of knighthood from George III. At his death, in 1792, his property amounted to more than half a million sterling.

‡ *James Watt* was born in Scotland in 1736; died in 1819. He was first a mathematical-instrument maker, and subsequently a surveyor. He began his experiments on the steam-engine about 1763, and soon discovered the cause of the inefficiency of that in general use at the time. This was worked by atmospheric pressure, steam being used only to produce a vacuum. In 1765 he hit upon the idea of a separate condenser, and of using steam as the motive power; and in 1769 his model was completed.

condensing steam-engine in 1769, and introduced, during the next sixteen years, improvements in it of great practical value. The working of the coal-mines was greatly facilitated by the application of Watt's invention. The inventions of Wedgewood* also made so many improvements in pottery, that he may be considered the founder of this branch of manufacture in Great Britain. His first success was the production of a beautiful cream-colored porcelain, called, in honor of Queen Charlotte, who greatly admired it, "Queen's Ware" (1763).

Wedgewood.

127. Through the sagacity, energy, and liberality of the Duke of Bridgewater, and his celebrated engineer, James Brindley, *canal navigation* assumed considerable importance in England. An act of Parliament for the construction of his first canal was obtained in 1758. The roads, too, gradually improved; and during the greater part of the period travelers were conveyed by means of rapid stage-coaches to the various parts of the kingdom. The construction of the first locomotive, or steam-carriage, in 1804, commenced a wonderful revolution in this respect; though railways had been used to a limited extent some time previously. Locomotive power was employed on a railway by George Stephenson † in 1814; but it was not until 1821 that passengers were transported in this way.

Canal navigation.

Locomotive.

128. The *fine arts* were also cultivated with great success. Among painters the most prominent were Hogarth ‡ and Sir

* *Josiah Wedgewood*, born in 1730, was early engaged in the business of pottery. His many improvements in the manufacture of all kinds of porcelain realized him a vast fortune. He was a man of benevolence and culture; and besides his own special kind of knowledge, studied natural philosophy with much success. He died in 1795.

† *George Stephenson*, at first a workman in a colliery, rose to great distinction by his singular genius as a machinist and engineer. Through his efforts the locomotive became a success, the first railroads being constructed under his supervision. He died in 1848, at the age of 67.

‡ *William Hogarth* was born in London in 1697. His first employment as an artist was in engraving. His moral paintings attracted considerable attention from their

Joshua Reynolds.* The latter was the first president of the Royal Academy of Arts, founded in 1768. George III. was a generous patron of the fine arts, and conferred on Reynolds the honor of knighthood. In music, Handel,† by birth a German, achieved an enduring renown. The first oratorio was produced by him in 1733; but it was not until 1749 that his sublimest composition, "The Messiah," appeared. Very many operas were also composed and brought out by him. One of the most successful works of this kind was the "Beggars' Opera," composed by the poet Gay, to whom it was suggested by Swift in 1726. Among other musical composers of this period were the celebrated Dr. Arne,‡ and Dr. Charles Burney§—the latter distinguished particularly as the author of the "General History of Music."

Fine arts.

Music.

129. In scientific discovery quite remarkable progress was also made. Sir Humphry Davy,‖ the great chemist, invented the safety-lamp (1816), one of the most valuable

humor as well as artistic excellence. The most celebrated of his paintings is, perhaps, the "Enraged Musician," which was finished in 1741. He died in 1764.

* *Sir Joshua Reynolds*, generally placed at the head of the English school of painting, was born in England in 1723. His portraits were of unsurpassed merit, eclipsing everything that had been executed since the time of Van Dyke. He was the companion and friend of Johnson, Burke, Goldsmith, Garrick, the famous actor, and other literary men of the time. He died in 1784.

† *George Frederick Handel* was born in Saxony in 1684. At the age of fourteen, he produced his first opera at Hamburg. He went to England in 1710, and soon became exceedingly popular. A liberal pension was settled on him by George I., and his oratorios were frequently attended by the king and the royal family. He died in 1759, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, where a handsome monument was erected to his memory.

‡ *Thomas Augustine Arne* was one of the best of English composers. He was born at London in 1710, and died in 1778. The celebrated national air, "Rule Britannia," was composed by him.

§ *Charles Burney*, noted for his literary and musical talents, was the father of the celebrated *Frances Burney*, who wrote "Evelina," and some other popular works of fiction. Dr. Burney died in 1815, at the age of eighty-nine.

‖ *Sir Humphry Davy* was born in Cornwall in 1778. He devoted himself to the study of chemistry during the greater part of his life. His lectures in the Royal Institute of London attracted crowded and brilliant audiences. He was also very fond of fishing, and wrote "Salmonia, or Days of Fly-fishing." His death occurred in 1829.

presents ever made by science to humanity. Sir William Herschel* discovered in 1781 a new planet, to which he gave the name *Georgium Sidus*, in honor of George III., but now generally called *Uranus*. He also made many other valuable discoveries in astronomy. His monster telescope, forty feet in length, completed in 1787, was the wonder of his age, but it was exceeded by that of Lord Rosse constructed at a later period. Medical science was greatly enriched by the labors and publications of the celebrated John Hunter, the greatest physiologist and surgeon of his time. Edward Jenner, who had studied under him, gave to the world the discovery of vaccination in 1796. The discoveries of Priestley (including that of oxygen), of Black (carbonic-acid gas and the theory of latent heat), of Cavendish (the composition of water and the levity of hydrogen gas), and of John Dalton (the founder of the atomic theory),† as well as the later researches of Michael Faraday, gave chemistry a high rank among physical sciences. The researches of Dr. Franklin in America gave a decided impulse to electrical discovery about the middle of the eighteenth century, and led the way to the invention of the electric telegraph by Professor Morse and others in the United States.

Scientific Discovery.

FRANKLIN.

* *Sir William Herschel*, the world-renowned astronomer, was born at Hanover, in 1738, and was by profession a musician. He went to England in 1757, and at first devoted himself to music. His astronomical discoveries were very numerous and valuable. He died in 1822. His sister, *Caroline Herschel*, also attained great distinction as an astronomer, as likewise did his son, *Sir John Herschel*, to whom we are indebted for many important discoveries.

† *John Dalton* was born in Cumberland in 1766, and died in 1844. He was early interested in the study of mathematics and physics, and first conceived this theory while making some chemical researches. The atomic theory explains the laws according to which the elementary substances enter into chemical combination with each other. He first published a complete statement of this theory in 1810.

130. The improvements in printing, including the general use of stereotype and electrotype plates, with the steam printing-press, have greatly facilitated the diffusion of knowledge, and augmented the number of journals, periodicals, and books of all kinds. English literature during this long period was enriched with works of genius in every department of prose and poetry. In the seventeenth century, the most conspicuous name is that of Samuel Johnson, the author of the *English Dictionary.* The history of English literature since the Augustan Age of Queen Anne, may be divided into three periods: I. The eighteenth century, succeeding Anne, which we may call the age of Johnson; II. The first part of the nineteenth century, which we may call the age of Scott; III. The latter part of the nineteenth century, or the Victorian age. We give a brief sketch of each.

Printing.

Literature.

MORSE.

Periods.

131. The **first period** includes the following poets:

Poets.

Edward Young (1684–1765), by profession a clergyman, the author of *Night Thoughts* and some other poems.

John Gay (1688–1732), who wrote the *Beggars' Opera* and the *Fables*, considered the finest composition of the kind in the language. He was the friend of Pope and Swift.

James Thomson (1700–1748), author of *The Seasons*, the best known of his works; also of the *Castle of Indolence*, in the style of Spenser's *Faerie Queene.* The latter is considered the most finished of his poems.

William Collins (1720–1756), author of the *Ode to the Passions*, and other lyrical poems, remarkable for their beautiful imagery and exquisite purity of style. He died insane.

Oliver Goldsmith (1728–1774), one of the renowned galaxy of genius, of which Johnson was the central luminary. Goldsmith was a poet, a dramatist, an essayist, a humorist, and a general literary compiler.

His chief writings are poems entitled *The Traveler* and *The Deserted Village;* a novel called *The Vicar of Wakefield;* two comedies, *She Stoops to Conquer* and *The Good-Natured Man;* and a charming collection of essays, under the general title of *Letters from a Citizen of the World.*

Thomas Gray (1716–1771), a man of learning and genius, author of the well-known *Elegy written in a Country Churchyard,* and other poems.

GOLDSMITH.

Mark Akenside (1721–1770), author of a beautiful poem entitled *The Pleasures of the Imagination.*

Thomas Chatterton (1752–1770), noted for his imitations of old English poetry, which he published as genuine specimens under the name of Rowley; and for his mournful end in his eighteenth year. Campbell said of him: "No English poet ever equaled him at the same age."

Robert Burns (1759–1796), the illustrious Scottish poet, unsurpassed as a song writer. Some of his longer pieces are: *The Cotter's Saturday Night* and *Tam O'Shanter.*

William Cowper (1731–1800), noted for his morbid sensitiveness and melancholy, verging on insanity, as well as his poetical genius. His *Table Talk* and *The Task* contain many powerful and brilliant passages. He also wrote the humorous poem *John Gilpin.* He was, moreover, an inimitable letter-writer.

BURNS.

James Beattie (1735–1803), author of *The Minstrel,* and a celebrated prose work against the skeptical philosophy, entitled an *Essay on Truth.*

132. The chief prose writers of this period are:

Philip Doddridge (1702–1751), a clergyman, who wrote the well-known devotional work, *The Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul.*

Samuel Johnson (1709–1784), renowned especially as an essayist and poet. His chief works are: A collection of essays called *The Rambler,* a

romance styled *Rasselas*, several poems, the *Lives of the Poets*, besides his great work, the *English Dictionary*.

Prose writers.

Edmund Burke (1730–1797), a noted orator as well as writer. His best known works are: *An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful* and *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

David Hume (1711–1776), author of the *History of England*, and several philosophical works.

William Robertson (1721–1793), a native of Scotland, noted for his histories, of *Charles V. of Germany*, of *Scotland*, and of *America*.

Edward Gibbon (1737–1794), author of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

Laurence Sterne (1713–1768), a clergyman by profession, the author of *Tristram Shandy* and the *Sentimental Journey*, noted for their humor, satire, and original style.

BYRON.

Richardson, Fielding, and **Smollett** were the most noted novelists of the period. **Horace Walpole** (1717–1797), the author of *The Castle of Otranto*, may also be mentioned here.

WORDSWORTH.

133. The **second period** includes the following poets:

Second period.

John Keats (1796–1821), author of *Endymion* and *Hyperion*, with several minor poems.

Lord Byron (George Gordon Noel) (1788–1824) was perhaps the most brilliant genius of this period; his chief poems are *Childe Harold*, *The Corsair*, *Don Juan*, and the dramas *Cain* and *Manfred*. His poems contain lofty flights of imagination, with splendid diction and imagery, but are greatly disfigured by his moody, misanthropic turn of mind.

Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822), author of many splendid poems and dramas. His genius was of the highest order; but he was very eccentric both as a writer and a man.

Thomas Moore (1779–1852), noted particularly for his melodies. His longest piece is *Lalla Rookh*, an Oriental romantic poem, abounding in beautiful passages.

Thomas Campbell (1777–1844), author of *Pleasures of Hope*, *Gertrude of Wyoming*, *Hohenlinden*, and several smaller pieces. His odes are especially admired.

SCOTT.

William Wordsworth (1770–1850), Poet-Laureate of England, author of *The Excursion*, *Ode on the Intimations of Immortality*, and many other poems.

Robert Southey (1774–1843), the writer of many poems, as well as prose works.

Samuel T. Coleridge (1772–1834), a writer of genius both in prose and poetry. Coleridge, Southey, and Wordsworth were called the "Lake poets," because they resided for a time in the picturesque region of northwestern England, which abounds in lakes.

James Montgomery (1771–1854), author of many beautiful poems, including hymns.

Robert Pollok (1799–1827), author of *The Course of Time*.

Felicia D. Hemans (Mrs.) (1794–1835), authoress of many popular poems.

Letitia E. Landon (1802–1838), a poetess and novelist of remarkable genius.

Thomas Hood (1798–1845), the far-famed humorist, author of many pathetic pieces, *The Bridge of Sighs*, *Song of the Shirt*, etc.

J. Sheridan Knowles (1784–1862), a distinguished dramatist, who wrote *William Tell*, *The Hunchback*, etc.

TENNYSON.

Sir Walter Scott (1771–1832), more noted as a novelist than a poet, was the author of many poems of great merit, as *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*, *The Lady of the Lake*, and *Marmion*.

Samuel Rogers (1763–1855), author of *Pleasures of Memory*, also *Italy* and other much-admired poems.

134. The principal prose writers of this period are:

Prose writers.

Frances Burney (Countess D'Arblay) (1752–1840), daughter of Dr. Charles Burney; she was noted for her novels, particularly *Evelina*, and for her *Diary*.

Anna Letitia Barbauld (Mrs.) (1743–1825), celebrated for her books for children,—*Early Lessons, Hymns in Prose*, etc.

MACAULAY.

Maria Edgeworth (1767–1849), a writer of moral fiction, and many interesting works for children.

Dugald Stewart (1753–1828), author of several works on moral and intellectual philosophy.

Sir James Mackintosh (1765–1832), brilliant as a statesman, a lawyer, and a writer.

Henry Hallam (1778–1859), author of the *History of the Middle Ages, Literature of Europe*, etc.

John Lingard (1771–1851), author of the *History of England*.

Thomas Arnold (1795–1842), of Rugby fame, author of the *History of Rome*, and *Lectures on Modern History*.

Lord Jeffrey (1773–1853), editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, and distinguished as an essayist and critic.

Lord Brougham (1779–1868), brilliant as a statesman and an orator, and a very versatile writer.

Charles Lamb (1775–1834), a humorist and original writer, best known for his *Essays of Elia*.

GEORGE ELIOT.

Thomas de Quincey (1786–1859), known as the *English Opium Eater*, one of the most brilliant and versatile writers of his age,—a great master of the English language.

135. The **Victorian Age** includes the following poets:

Alfred Tennyson (born 1809), author of *In Memoriam, Locksley Hall, Idyls of the King*, etc. Most of his poems are much admired.

Elizabeth B. Browning (1809–1861), a poetess of great power and originality. Her best known poem is *Aurora Leigh.*

Victorian Age.

Robert Browning (born 1812), husband of E. B. Browning, considered by some one of the greatest poets of the time. His chief writings are dramas.

Jean Ingelow (Miss) (born 1830), a lyric poet of great genius.

Algernon C. Swinburne (born 1843), author of many fine poems.

136. The prose writers of this period are very numerous in every department. Only a few can here be mentioned.

Prose writers.

DICKENS.

Thomas B. Macaulay (1800–1859), a brilliant essayist, critic, and historian; his *Miscellaneous Essays* and the *History of England* are the best known of his works.

Lord Lytton (Bulwer) (1805–1873), especially noted as a novelist; author of *Rienzi, Last Days of Pompeii*, etc., besides many poems.

THACKERAY.

George Eliot (Mrs. Lewes) (1820–1880), among the most gifted writers of her time; her chief works are novels, among which *Adam Bede, Romola*, and *Middlemarch* are perhaps the most celebrated.

Charles Dickens (1812–1870), one of the greatest of novelists; his works are numerous and exceedingly popular.

Charles Kingsley (1819–1875), author of *Alton Locke* and other novels of great merit.

Charlotte Bronte (1816–1855), a novelist of great fame, author of *Jane Eyre* and other works of merit.

William M. Thackeray (1811–1863), am eminent novelist, author of *Vanity Fair, Henry Esmond, The Virginians*, etc.

Archibald Alison (Sir) (1792–1867), author of *History of Europe*, and *Life of Marlborough.*

George Grote (1794–1876), author of *History of Greece*, and other historical works, showing profound scholarship and research.

Charles Merivale (Rev.) (1808–1874), author of *History of the Romans* and other historical works.

James A. Froude (born 1818), author of the *History of England*, etc.

John Stuart Mill (1806–1873), one of the profoundest thinkers of his time, author of *System of Logic*, etc.

Henry T. Buckle (1822–1862), author of *History of Civilization*, a very great work, which he did not live to complete.

Benjamin Disraeli (Earl of Beaconsfield) (1805–1881), a writer of great eminence, particularly in the field of fictitious literature. His best known novels are *Vivian Grey*, *Venetia*, and *Lothair*.

John Ruskin (born in 1819), a noted writer on art. His great works are *Modern Painters*, *Seven Lamps of Architecture*, *Stones of Venice*.

William E. Gladstone (born 1809), a writer of great scholarship and culture, author of *Juventus Mundi*, *Homeric Studies*, etc.

Thomas Carlyle (1795–1881), a very powerful and original writer, author of *The French Revolution*, *Life of Frederick the Great*, and many other works.

CARLYLE.

137. Among scientific writers may be enumerated the following:

Scientific writers

David Brewster (1781–1863), author of *Natural Magic*, etc.

Sir Charles Lyell (1797–1875), noted for his geological writings.

Hugh Miller (1802–1856), also noted for his works on geological subjects.

William Whewell, D.D. (1795-1866), author of the *History of the Inductive Sciences*.

John Tyndall (born 1820), author of many works on physical science.

Herbert Spencer (born 1820), one of the most distinguished scientists and philosophers of his time.

Charles Darwin (1809–1882), an eminent naturalist, author of *The Origin of Species* and other works presenting various original scientific theories, constituting what has been called the "Darwinian Philosophy."

Thomas H. Huxley (born 1825), noted for his researches in zoölogy, and his lectures and writings on different branches of physical science.

Sovereigns of England,

From Henry VII. (1485) to the Present Time (1881).

Line.	*Name.*	*Date of reign.*	*Line.*	*Name.*	*Date of reign.*
Tudor.	Henry VII	1485-1509	Stuart.	James II	1685-1689
	Henry VIII	1509-1547		William and Mary	1689-1694
	Edward VI	1547-1553		William III	1694-1702
	Mary	1553-1558		Anne	1702-1714
	Elizabeth	1558-1603	Brunswick.	George I	1714-1727
Stuart.	James I	1603-1625		George II	1727-1760
	Charles I	1625-1649		George III	1760-1820
	Cromwell (Protector)	1653-1658		George IV	1820-1830
	R. Cromwell (Protector)	1658-1660		William IV	1830-1837
	Charles II	1660-1685		Victoria	1837

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
Defeat of the Scots in the battle of Flodden Field	1513
Separation of the English Church from the Roman Catholic Church	1534
Sir Francis Drake's voyage round the globe	1579
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots	1587
Translation of the Bible under King James I	1611
Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh	1618
The Covenant signed by the Scots	1638
Commencement of the Civil War. Battle of Edge Hill	1642
Execution of Charles I. The Commonwealth declared	1649
Great Plague in England	1665
The famous battle of the Boyne. James II. defeated	1690
Battle of Blenheim. The French defeated by Marlborough and Prince Eugene.	1704
Treaty of peace with France signed at Utrecht	1713
Battle of Culloden. Prince Charles defeated	1746
Capture of Quebec, and death of General Wolfe	1759
Independence of the American colonies acknowledged by England	1783
Legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland	1801
Battle of Waterloo. Victory of Wellington over Napoleon	1815
Battle of Navarino. Independence of Greece declared	1827
Slavery abolished in all the British colonies	1834
Afghan War. Cabul taken. Chinese War	1841
The Corn Laws repealed	1846
The Crimean War	1853-1855
Indian Mutiny. Delhi taken. Chinese War.	1857
Abolition of the East India Company	1858
Death of Prince Albert	1861
Abyssinian War. Defeat of King Theodore	1868
Ashantee War. Coomassie, the capital, burned	1872
Treaty of Berlin. Cyprus ceded to England by Turkey	1878
War with the Zulus. Capture of the king	1879
The Irish Land Bill passed	1881

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For what noted?
With what events connected?

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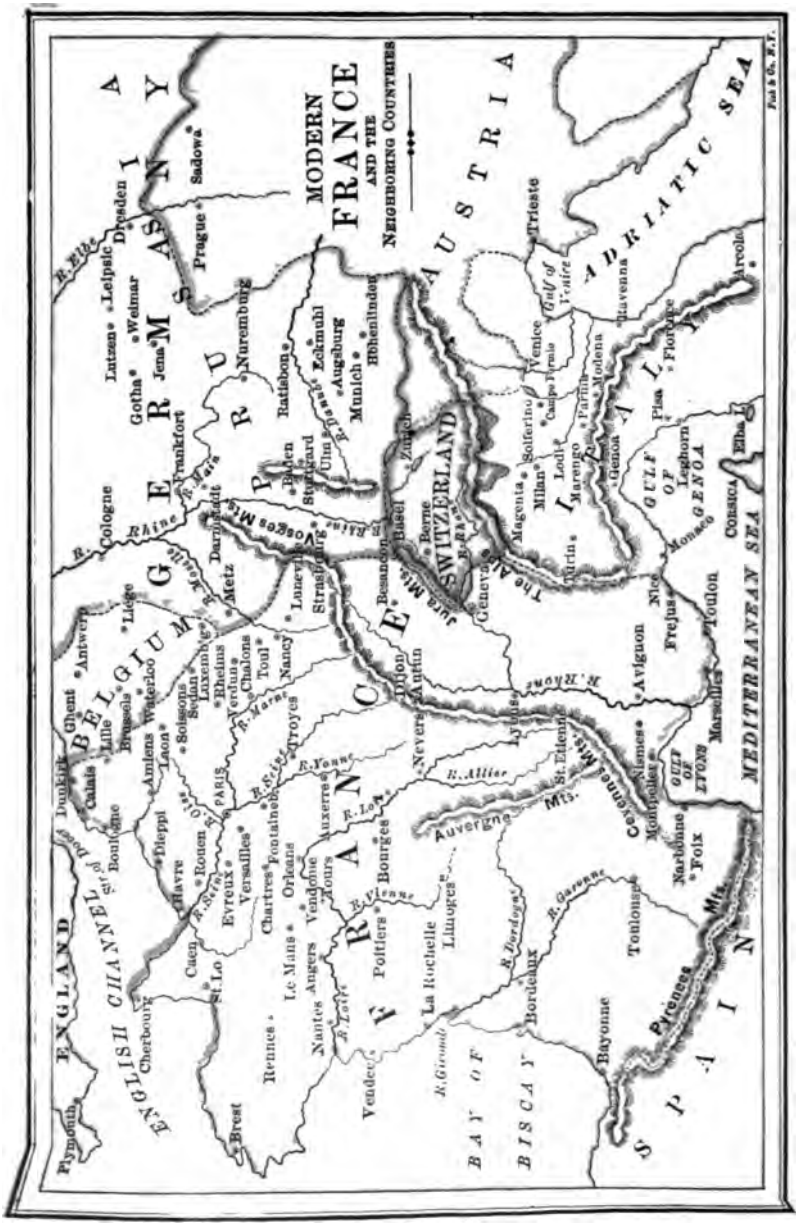

CHAPTER X.

FRANCE,

From 1483 *to the Present Time.*

SECTION I.

THE VALOIS-ORLEANS BRANCH.

1. Louis XII. Charles VIII. dying without heirs, Louis, Duke of Orleans, succeeded to the throne, being the great-grandson of Charles V. The nobleness of his character was displayed in his generous forgiveness toward his former enemies, for he said "it did not become the king of France to resent the injuries of the Duke of Orleans." Most of this reign was occupied in wars waged for the possession of territories in Italy. Milan was taken (1500), and also Naples, with the aid of Ferdinand of Aragon; but the latter afterward disputed the French claim, and the French were defeated by the Spanish forces under Gon-sal'vo de Cordova, called the "Great Captain," and Ferdinand thus gained almost exclusive possession of the Neapolitan States (1503). Louis attempted to retrieve his loss; but Gonzalvo inflicted upon the French one of the severest disasters that ever befell their arms (December, 1503). This defeat excluded the French from Naples, and a treaty of peace was made the next year.

Character.

War in Italy.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XVII.

What is the situation of: FRANCE? BELGIUM? GERMANY? SWITZERLAND? ITALY? AUSTRIA? Paris? Rouen? Havre? Dieppe? Bologne? Amiens? Sedan? Rheims? Nancy? Luneville? Strasburg? Troyes? Chalons? Versailles? Orleans? Tours? Nantes? La Rochelle? Bordeaux? Toulouse? Avignon? Marseilles? Toulon? Brussels? Waterloo? Ghent? Metz? Leipsic? Munich? Hohenlinden? Augsburg? Jena? Dresden? Prague? Sadowa? Milan? Campo Formio? Turin? Marengo? Lodi? Solferino? Magenta? Ravenna? Arcola? Elba?

2. Louis, some time afterward, entered into the celebrated League of Cambray, formed by France, Germany, Spain, the Pope (Julius II.), and the minor states of Italy, in order to check the power of Venice, then at the height of its glory and influence. Under the command of the illustrious Chevalier Bāy'ard, the French completely defeated the Venetians in the battle of Agnadello (*an-yah-del'lo*); and the other allies were also successful (1509). But the intrigues of Julius II. soon afterward diverted the force of the alliance from Venice and turned it against France, with the view to deprive the latter of all her possessions in Italy. In this way the Holy League, consisting of the Pope, Ferdinand of Spain, and the Venetian Republic, was formed (1511); but the French, under the command of the renowned Gaston de Foix (*fwah*), gained two brilliant victories over the allies. That heroic general having fallen in one of these battles (1512), Louis was soon afterward obliged to succumb to the power of the League, and surrendered all his acquisitions in northern Italy.

League of Cambray.

Pope Julius II.

Holy League.

3. Louis then formed an alliance with Venice to recover these possessions (1513), and, at first, gained some successes; but was finally defeated with severe loss by the Swiss, who had been hired by the Italians for their defense. This disaster encouraged the enemies of

French defeat.

France to attack it; and while it was threatened by Ferdinand of Spain, the Swiss invaded it from the west, and Henry VIII. landed with a large army at Calais. The latter, a short time afterward, fought the noted Battle of the Spurs, in which several of the French officers, including Bayard, were taken prisoners (1513). Louis, wearied with these harassing wars, shortly afterward succeeded in making a treaty of peace with his enemies, but survived it only a few months. His virtues had made him exceedingly popular, and he died universally regretted by his subjects (1515).

Battle of the Spurs.

End of the reign.

4. **Francis I.**, Duke of Angouléme (*ang-go-lām*), and cousin of Louis XII., succeeded to the throne at the age of twenty-one years. He was of a very chivalrous disposition, and was eager to distinguish himself by military achievements. His first enterprise was to recover Milan, which had been lost during the previous reign; and, at the head of 40,000 men, commanded by Bayard, the Constable Bour'bon, and other illustrious generals, he invaded Italy. There, in the battle of Marignano (*mah-reen-yah'no*), he totally defeated the Swiss mercenaries, 10,000 of whom were left dead upon the field (1515). Milan, therefore, surrendered; and Francis wisely augmented his influence by establishing a lasting alliance with the Swiss Republic (1516).

First enterprise.

5. On the death of Maximilian, emperor of Germany, Francis became a competitor with Charles of Spain for the vacant throne. The election of the latter excited the anger of Francis, and gave rise to a series of wars that lasted nearly twenty-five years, between him and his great rival, afterward so illustrious as Charles V. of Germany. Both parties sought the alliance of Henry VIII. of England, and, on the occasion of the interview which took place between the English and French monarchs, *fêtes* of

Wars with Charles V.

Henry and Francis.

such extraordinary splendor were given, that the place of the interview was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." Owing, however, to the intrigues of Wolsey, Henry declared in favor of the emperor.

6. Francis unwisely quarreled with his great general, the Constable of Bourbon, and the latter was gladly taken into the service of the emperor. The first step of the French

FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD. (From an old bas-relief.)

king was to invade Italy; but his army was under the command of an incompetent general, and Bourbon soon drove it into a disastrous retreat, during which the gallant and chivalrous Bayard was killed. Francis then conducted the army in person; but, at Pavi'a, suffered a dreadful defeat, all his most distinguished generals being slain, and he himself made prisoner (1525).

Defeat in Italy.

He remained in captivity more than a year, during which he suffered considerable indignity from Charles V., who extorted from him an assent to the most humiliating conditions before he would grant his release. These, on regaining his liberty, he refused to fulfill, and con-

Captivity.

sequently the war was renewed, Francis having formed an alliance with Venice and the Pope.

7. Bourbon marched to Rome with a large army, consisting partly of German troops, whose minds had been excited by the new doctrines of Luther, and partly also composed of a multitude of adventurers and bandits, as ferocious as the Huns or Vandals. Bourbon was slain in the first assault; but Rome was taken, and for seven months became a scene of the most remorseless violence and pillage, the Pope (Clement VII.) being kept a prisoner, and treated with the grossest indignities (1527).* This led to an alliance between the kings of France and England; and Charles, embarrassed by the movements of the German Protestants, and threatened by the Turks under their great sultan, Soliman the Magnificent, agreed to a treaty of peace with Francis, made at Cambray (1529).

Taking of Rome.

FRANCIS I.

8. Twice, however, was the war renewed; and Francis degraded himself and shocked Christendom by forming an

* "It is impossible to describe, or even to imagine, the misery and horror of the scenes which followed. Whatever a city taken by storm can dread from military rage unrestrained by discipline; whatever excesses the ferocity of the Germans, the avarice of the Spaniards, or the licentiousness of the Italians could commit, these the wretched inhabitants were obliged to suffer. Churches, palaces, and the houses of private persons were plundered without distinction. No age, or character, or sex was exempt from injury. Cardinals, nobles, priests, matrons, virgins, were all the prey of soldiers, and at the mercy of men deaf to the voice of humanity. Nor did these outrages cease, as is usual in towns which are carried by assault, when the first fury of the storm was over. The imperialists kept possession of Rome several months; and, during all that time, the insolence and brutality of the soldiers hardly abated."—*Robertson's Charles the Fifth.*

alliance with the Turkish sultan. In 1544, he wiped out the disgrace of his defeat at Pavia, by a splendid victory in Italy over the imperial army; but Charles formed an alliance with Henry VIII., both monarchs engaging to invade France, capture Paris, and divide the French dominions between them. The French king made a successful defense against the invading armies of these two powerful foes, and finally succeeded in making peace with both. His death occurred the next year (1547). Francis was a liberal patron of literature and the arts, both of which made very great progress during his reign.

English alliance.

End of reign.

9. Henry II., on his accession to the throne, was in the twenty-ninth year of his age. He was slothful and luxurious in his disposition, and possessed but few of the talents of his father. Before he commenced to reign, he married Catharine de' Medici (*med'e-che*), a descendant of the illustrious Lorenzo de' Medici, of the Florentine Republic, who, on account of his accomplishments and his liberal patronage of learning and art, was styled the Magnificent.*

Character.

Marriage.

10. Hostilities between France and Charles V. were resumed soon after the commencement of Henry's reign; and the latter allied himself with the great Protestant champion, Maurice, Elector of Saxony, who at once declared war against the emperor as the enemy of the civil and religious liberty of Germany. Charles V., prudently yielding to the force of so powerful a combination, concluded with the Germans the treaty of Passau, conceding to the Protestants freedom of worship (1552). Henry II., however, having refused to be included in the treaty, the

War with Charles V.

* Pope Leo X. was a son of Lorenzo, and Clement VII. a nephew; and when, through the influence of the latter and Charles V., Florence lost her liberty, a member of this celebrated family was made the first Duke of Florence (1529); and its descendants, for a century afterward, continued to occupy the ducal throne of Tuscany.

imperial army was repulsed with severe loss at Metz, defended by the French under Francis, Duke of Guise (*gweez*).

11. Charles V. having resigned his throne to his son Philip, the French king embraced the occasion to invade the Netherlands and Italy; but sustained severe disasters in each of these enterprises. In the former, the Constable Montmorency sustained a total defeat at St. Quen'tin, where the flower of his army were either slain or taken prisoners (1557). Queen Mary of England had given assistance to her husband Philip; and, through the energy of Guise, the French gained possession of Calais (1558). This was soon followed by a treaty of peace between the contending parties, and a little later by the king's death, which was occasioned by a wound received at a tournament (1559).

Battle of St. Quentin.

Calais.

12. **Francis II.**, a youth of sixteen years, succeeded to the throne. The year before, he married Mary Queen of Scots; and, being of feeble intellect, he was entirely ruled by his fascinating queen, who herself was under the control of her uncles, the Duke of Guise and his brother, Cardinal of Lorraine. These two noblemen thus acquired the supreme power in the government; which they proceeded to employ for the destruction of the Protestants, or Huguenots, the persecution of whom had commenced in the previous reign. The Huguenots had, nevertheless, rapidly increased in number and influence, and now included within their ranks the king of Navarre, his brother Louis, Prince of Condé (*kon'da*), Admiral Coligni (*ko-leen'ye*), with many others of high rank and great ability.

Marriage.

Huguenots.

13. On account of the tyrannical administration of the Guises, a conspiracy was formed, under Condé; which proving unsuccessful, the Duke of Guise took the opportunity of executing a dreadful vengeance on those who had been concerned in it, executing upward

Duke of Guise.

of twelve hundred persons with the most revolting cruelty (1560). This was soon followed by the arrest of the king of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, the latter of whom was convicted of high treason and sentenced to be executed; but the king's death taking place soon afterward, he was released. The reign of Francis II. lasted less than eighteen months; and he was succeeded by his brother Charles, a youth ten years and a half old (1560).

Condé.

14. Charles IX. The government was now administered by the Queen-mother, Catharine de' Medici, who had previously selected for her chief friend and adviser the moderate and virtuous Chancellor de l'Hôpital (*o-pe-tahl'*); and the leaders of both religious parties were placed in the great offices of state. The States-General were assembled, and proclaimed entire freedom of religion, which was afterward confirmed by a royal edict. These excellent measures, however, proved ineffectual, in consequence of the excesses and bitter feelings of both parties; and the country was soon plunged into the miseries of a civil war.

L'Hôpital.

15. The Prince of Condé at first assumed the command of the Protestants, who were assisted by the English queen Elizabeth, while the government was aided by Philip of Spain. This war was carried on with great fury, and with various successes on both sides, till 1570, when peace was obtained by granting to the Huguenots the free exercise of their religion in all parts of France, except Paris; and the administration placed in their power, as a guarantee, four cities, one of which was Rochelle (*ro-shel'*). While this arrangement gave great dissatisfaction to the Catholic party, it did not restore confidence to the Protestants, who entertained a mistrust of the sincerity of Catharine, by whose counsels and intrigues the king was entirely controlled.

War with Protestants.

16. Admiral Coligni and the other Protestant leaders finally repaired to the court; and the former gained so much

influence over the young king, that Catharine entered into a plot to remove him by assassination. The admiral, however, was but slightly wounded; and Catharine and her political accomplices resolved on a general destruction of the Protestant party. The dreadful "Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day" followed, in which many of the Huguenots throughout France were butchered without distinction of age or sex, Coligni being the first victim. The number of those who fell in Paris alone has been estimated at 10,000; but it is impossible to ascertain the number of victims with accuracy. This shocking event occurred August 24, 1572. The Huguenots were not, however, entirely crushed. They repelled the assaults made on Rochelle, and finally wrested favorable terms of peace from the government. Charles soon afterward died, having suffered the most poignant remorse for the atrocities perpetrated with his sanction.

St. Bartholomew's Day.

Huguenots.

17. Henry III., brother of the late king, succeeded to the throne; although, in the preceding year, he had been elected king of Poland. He was a weak and dissolute prince, neglecting his duties to indulge in the most infamous debauchery. The Huguenots, under the leadership of Henry of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, became very powerful; and the king and Catharine were compelled to make the most humiliating concessions (1576). This led to a contest which has been styled the "War of the Three Henries"—Henry the king, Henry of Guise, and Henry of Navarre. It was commenced in 1587; and the king, in union with the Leaguers, gained some advantages over their opponents.

Character.

Huguenots.

18. At last, disgusted and enraged at finding himself at the mercy of the Guises, and being treated with considerable indignity by them, he caused them to be assassinated. This crime excited a violent outbreak of popular fury against the king, who, in order to resist the

Guises.

opposition which he had created, allied himself to Henry of Navarre and the Huguenots. A few months after this, he was assassinated by a Dominican monk, named Clement, who was prompted to the deed by feelings of religious enthusiasm (1589). Thus ended the royal dynasty of Valois, the throne passing to the House of Bourbon, in the person of Henry III., king of Navarre, who therefore assumed the title of Henry IV.

Assassination of the king.

STATE OF SOCIETY IN FRANCE,

During the Valois-Orleans Period.

19. The wars with Italy during this period led to the introduction of Italian art and artists into France, particularly in the reign of Francis I., who gave great encouragement to literature and art. His patronage of men of science and letters, as well as artists, was so earnest that he associated with some of the most eminent as his personal friends. Among these Leonardo da Vinci, the Italian painter, was especially distinguished. During this period, called the *Renaissance* (new birth), French architecture was modified by the substitution of the lighter and more graceful Italian style.* This was true not only of the churches, but of domestic architecture.

Art.

Architecture.

20. Hunting and hawking were favorite amusements of the noble and wealthy. Each king had a large establishment specially devoted to the chase, for the support of which a large sum was annually appropriated. Packs of hounds, also leopards, panthers, and falcons, were

Amusements.

* "Four enormous walls, pierced promiscuously with small windows, flanked with ten small towers, and in the middle a large tower serving for a prison and treasury—such was the habitation of our ancient kings. Upon the ruins of this edifice of a past age was erected, little by little, a palace which, notwithstanding all its transformations, is still the most complete expression of the French Renaissance. Pierre Lescot constructed only a part of the façade, in which is placed the pavilion called the *Horologe*."—Duruy's History of France.

employed; and a hunting party, especially of the monarch or of a great lord, brought together a numerous and gay company, among them many ladies, who shared with eagerness in the excitement of the chase. Catherine de' Medici was especially noted for her fondness for hunting.

21. The dress of both sexes also underwent much change during this period. The love of luxury introduced by Francis I. led to the adoption by the ladies of elegant and costly dresses, made of the richest fabrics, and covered with lace and jewelry. The hair also was elaborately dressed, and decorated with nets of rare tissues; and ruffed collars, worn at first by women, at a later day became common for men. The heightening of the complexion by paint, and the use of patches and perfumes, were introduced from Italy. The men wore broad-brimmed hats decorated with jewels and costly plumes, short mantles embroidered with gold thread or trimmed with fur, and close-fitting slashed doublets with a belt at the waist in which was carried a rapier. They also wore trunk-hose and tights. Silk stockings are said to have been introduced by Catharine de' Medici, who first wore them from motives of vanity; and gloves, though afterward common, were at first a royal luxury.

Dress.

22. The influence of women at court received a powerful impulse in the time of Francis I. Long before his time, indeed, Anne of Brittany had gathered around her the daughters of the nobility for education and instruction in manners; but these constituted rather her private court, and the wives of the nobles remained at home to superintend the affairs of the household. Francis I., however, invited the wives of his nobles to attend their husbands at court; and, at one time, their number amounted to three hundred. From this time they began to take part in public affairs, their jealousies and rivalries entering largely into almost all political action. Ministers and

Influence of women.

generals were sometimes deposed at their pleasure, and their favor came to be considered the stepping-stone to power.

23. Schools had begun to increase in number during this period, though the instruction given in them was largely religious, and the discipline strict. The hours of study were unusually long, and the rod was used unsparingly. Latin and Greek were especially studied, the remainder of the time, after these were disposed of, being devoted principally to music and religious and physical exercises. Science began to assume a more rational character toward the close of this period. The College of France was founded by Francis I., in 1530, designed especially to give instruction in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, hence called the College of the Three Languages.

Schools.

College of France.

24. Among the most noted men of influence and genius of the time may be particularly mentioned Michel de l'Hôpital (*me-shel' dĕ lo'pe-tal*), Chancellor of France during the reign of Henry II. Such was his tolerance and aversion to violence, that he refused to sign the death-warrant of the Prince of Condé, and he successfully prevented the establishment of the Inquisition in France. At the massacre of St. Bartholomew's, the court sent a special guard for his protection; but supposing them to be assassins, he had his doors thrown open, saying that he was ready to meet death whenever it was the will of God.

Michel de l'Hopital.

25. Distinguished among the men of genius of the time may be mentioned also Francis Rabelais (*rah'be-lā*), the famous satirist, who attacked the religious and privileged orders; Clement Marot (*mah-ro'*), noted for his ballads and other poems, which were very popular; Pierre Lescot (*les-co'*), the architect of the Louvre (1510–1571); Philibert Delorme (*duh-lorm'*), an eminent architect, the designer of the Tuileries (1518–1577);* Michel

Other noted men.

* The palace of the Tuilleries was commenced by Catharine de' Medici in 1564, and was continued by Henry IV., who added a range of buildings with a splendid

de Montaigne (1533–1594), the celebrated essayist; Auguste de Thou (*too*), who wrote a general history of Europe during his time (1553–1617); and others who contributed to the formation of the French language as it now exists.

SECTION II.

The House of Bourbon.

26. Henry IV. was in his thirty-sixth year when he came to the throne, from which the Catholic nobles at first attempted to exclude him, except on condition of his renouncing his religion, which he refused to do; but he promised to give security to the Catholics and their religion, and to abide the decision of a national Council. This not being satisfactory to the League, now commanded by the Duke of May-enne′, brother of the late Duke of Guise, a war ensued, in which Henry defeated his enemies in the famous battle of Ivry (*eev′re*) (1590); but the fruits of this victory were afterward lost, and the Duke of Mayenne entered Paris in triumph.

War with the League.

27. The war was continued for some time with varied success, Henry being aided by the English troops under the Earl of Essex. At last, the States-General were called; and Henry, to satisfy the prevailing party, and to secure a recognition of his right to the throne, abjured Protestantism and declared himself satisfied with the truth of the Catholic faith (1593). By this act he delivered France from a condition of the most dreadful

Henry a Catholic.

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pavilion at each end. The whole front was more than 1000 feet in extent, with a depth of about 100 feet. Henry IV. also commenced a gallery to connect the Louvre and the Tuileries. This was continued by Louis XIII., and completed by Louis XIV. Napoleon I. added to this splendid edifice, and Napoleon III. further enlarged it.

anarchy;* and on patriotic considerations, it was approved by many of the Huguenots themselves. The next five years were occupied by the king in securing his possession of the throne, and in a war with Philip of Spain, which was concluded by a treaty in 1598, a year memorable for the grant by the king of the celebrated Edict of Nantes (*nants*), in which he confirmed the rights and privileges of the Huguenots, conferred upon them entire liberty of conscience, and admitted them to all offices of honor and emolument.

Edict of Nantes.

28. He next directed his attention to the internal condition of the kingdom, which, on account of the long continuance of civil war, had become entirely disorganized. By the construction of roads and canals, he brought all parts of the country into ready communication, encouraged traffic and commerce, and thus opened new sources of wealth and intelligence to the people. Manufactures, mining, and every other department of industry were fostered by his beneficent measures, in devising which he was greatly aided by the wise and upright Duke of Sul'ly. The latter reorganized the finances; and, although many of the taxes were remitted, the national debt was almost entirely liquidated.

Internal affairs.

Sully.

29. In the latter part of his reign, Henry IV. formed a project to rearrange the various states of Europe, and form them into an association, so as more completely to secure the balance of power, and to diminish the influence of the imperial house of Austria. A dispute having arisen between the emperor and some of the Protestant princes of Germany, Henry took sides with the latter, and thus gave great offense to his Catholic subjects. He was on

Henry's plan.

* "A contemporary estimated in 1580 that at least 800,000 persons had perished by the war or by massacre; that 9 cities had been destroyed; 250 villages burned; and 128,000 dwellings demolished. The work-shops were unoccupied, commerce was suspended, farms desolated, and everywhere brigandage. Such was the state from which Henry IV. was to rescue France."—*Duruy's History of France.*

the point of setting out to commence the war, when he was assassinated (1610), in the streets of Paris, by a half-insane fanatic, named Ravaillac (*rah-val-yak'*). The death of the king, who was the idol of the people, occasioned the utmost grief and indignation; and his murderer was put to death with every refinement of torture. Henry was possessed of great abilities and force of character; and, as a monarch, was deserving of very high praise; but his private life was sullied with many vices and immoralities.

Death and character.

30. Louis XIII. succeeded his father at the age of nine years, under the regency of his mother, Mary de' Medici. Sully, the great minister of Henry IV., becoming disgusted with the measures of the regent, and particularly her attention to Italian favorites, resigned, and went into retirement. An assembly of the States-General, in 1614, is noted for the first great occasion on which the celebrated Richelieu (*reesh'e-lu*) made display of his extraordinary talents. He was made a cardinal in 1622; and, two years afterward, became the chief adviser of the king. Determined to subdue the Huguenots, he laid siege to their chief city, Rochelle; and though Charles I. of England sent a considerable force to its assistance, it was compelled, after a vigorous defense of fifteen months, to surrender (1628). Richelieu himself took an active part in this siege. The other towns in the possession of the Huguenots were soon afterward obliged to submit, and the Protestant power in France was completely crushed.

RICHELIEU.

Sully.

Richelieu.

Huguenots.

31. Richelieu's next object was to humble the power of the imperial house of Austria, to effect which he took part in

the Thirty Years' War, on the side of the Protestants, against Spain and the empire (1635). The war was begun in the Netherlands, where the king's generals gained a victory near Liege, but the next year the French suffered some reverses, the imperialists invading France, devastating the country, and penetrating to within three days' march of the capital. The persevering energy of Richelieu, however, finally triumphed over all his enemies; and the French made conquest of Alsace and other territories.

Thirty Years' War.

32. The vigor of Richelieu's government excited much opposition on the part of the princes and nobles of France, and many conspiracies were formed to destroy him. All these schemes he was enabled to thwart by his consummate vigilance and address, and several of those who had engaged in them he caused to be executed. The most conspicuous among his enemies were Mary de' Medici, the queen-mother; Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the brother of the king; and the Duke of Montmorency. The last was executed, having been taken prisoner in a conflict with the government forces. Notwithstanding these difficulties, the great minister maintained the influence of France, and made it respected by every foreign power. Beneath his comprehensive genius and indefatigable energy, the king was a mere cipher. Richelieu was also a patron of science and literature, and to him France owes the foundation of the French academy. His death occurred in 1642, and was followed the next year by that of the king.

Conspiracies.

MARY DE' MEDICI.

Richelieu's influence.

33. Louis XIV. was scarcely five years of age when his father died; and the regency was intrusted to his mother, *Anne of* Austria, who selected as her prime minister Cardinal

Maz'a-rin, a former disciple and associate of Richelieu. France was again drawn into the Thirty Years' War, by the renewal of hostilities on the part of the house of Austria; but several splendid victories were gained by the French army, under the Prince of Condé, afterward so illustrious as the Great Condé, and by the celebrated Marshal Tu-renne'. This long war was closed by the Treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, by which the boundaries of France were settled, nearly as they exist at present.

Regency.

Condé and Turenne.

34. Meantime, the civil war of the Fronde* had broken out (1648), caused by the resistance of the people, represented in the parliament of Paris, to the unjust and oppressive measures of taxation adopted by the government, and probably incited by the rebellion of the English against their king, Charles I., which had just been brought to a successful issue. In these commotions, the court was opposed by many of the nobles; and, during the latter part of the war, the Great Condé also took sides against the government. The principal leader of the revolt, however, was Cardinal de Retz (*rates*). With much difficulty it was subdued in 1653, having lasted about five years.

Fronde.

35. The death of Mazarin, who had accumulated enormous wealth, occurred in 1661, after which date Louis XIV., from whom, on account of his neglected education, little had been expected, suddenly assumed the reins of government. He at once exhibited great sagacity and talent as a ruler; and during his subsequent reign, which lasted more than half a century, the vastness of his military enterprises, the grandeur of his plans for the internal improvement of his kingdom, his magnificent court ceremonial, and his enlightened patronage of literature and

Reign of Louis.

* "The members of the political faction opposed to the government were called, in derision, *Frondeurs*, that is, *Slingers*, being compared to the vagrant boys (*gamins*) of Paris who fought with slings (*fronde*).

the arts and sciences, obtained for him the title of the Great King. His government was, however, a complete despotism, its fundamental principle being comprehended in his famous saying, "I am the state." The prosperity of France was at this time greatly promoted by the wise financial measures of Colbert (*kole-bare'*), and by the ability with which the foreign affairs were administered by the prime minister Louvois (*loo-vwah'*).

Colbert.

36. The first military enterprise of Louis was the seizure of Flanders and Franche Comté (*fransh kong'ta*); but the Triple Alliance (England, Holland, and Sweden) arrested his career of conquest (1668). This excited the anger of Louis against Holland; and, having bribed Charles II. of England to aid him, and obtained promises of neutrality from the other European powers, he directed his armies under Turenne and Condé against the Dutch, the king in person crossing the Rhine with the army.

Triple Alliance.

War in Holland.

Louis XIV.

37. Holland was at first powerless against this formidable combination. Her people were divided into two parties, one composed of the nobility, with the Prince of Orange, afterward William III., King of England, as their leader; the other, of the merchants and burghers, who formed a republican party, at the head of which were the brothers John and Cornelius De Witt. The country was, however, rich, and was possessed of a powerful navy, commanded by the two most renowned admirals in Europe, De Ruyter (*ri'ter*) and Van Tromp.

Prince of Orange.

De Witt.

38. In their first movements, the French were successful. Several of the Dutch provinces were occupied, and Amsterdam

was threatened. Party dissensions became more bitter; the republicans demanding peace, while the Prince of Orange declared for war. A struggle ensued in which the De Witts were killed by the enraged populace, and the Prince of Orange was appointed Stadtholder (1672). The tide of war then rapidly turned in favor of the Dutch. Amsterdam was relieved from its besiegers by cutting the dikes and flooding the surrounding country; De Ruyter and Van Tromp destroyed the allied fleets; and the Stadtholder, by his skillful negotiations, dissolved the English and French alliance, and obtained the aid of Austria and Germany. Thus in two years, the greater part of Europe became involved in the war, and France stood alone.

Events of the war.

39. But Louis, through the genius of his great general Turenne, gained several victories over the allied forces; and, in the Mediterranean, the French fleets defeated those of Holland, De Ruyter being slain in one of the battles. At last, however, beset on all sides, he sued for peace, and a treaty was concluded in 1678. The war had brought him no advantages. He gave up all his conquests in Holland. Turenne had fallen in battle (1675); and Condé, enfeebled by age, had retired forever from the army. Still great honors were conferred upon him at Paris, triumphal arches were erected to commemorate his victories, and he received the title of The Great (*Louis le Grand*).

French successes.

Treaty of peace.

40. The free city of Strasburg was taken by the French a short time afterward (1681); and through the engineering skill of the celebrated Vauban (*vo-bahng'*) it was made an impregnable bulwark of France on its eastern frontier. In 1683, the queen died, and Louis afterward married secretly Madame de Maintenon (*mahn-ta-nong'*), who had obtained a singular influence over him, which she ever afterward retained. It was by the advice of this woman that the king adopted

Strasburg.

Madame de Maintenon.

the impolitic measure of revoking the Edict of Nantes (1685), which was followed by a fierce persecution of the Huguenots, an immense number of whom were driven from the country.*

Edict of Nantes.

41. The Catholic king of England, James II., having been dethroned, took refuge at the French court; and, Louis supporting his cause, war was declared between France and England (1689). All the great powers of Europe were combined against the French monarch, who at once put his forces in motion to forestall the action of his enemies. He sent an army into Germany, captured several cities, and ruthlessly devastated a large tract of country in order to prevent it from being used by his adversaries. For over seven years was this mighty struggle maintained by sea and land; and, France being utterly exhausted, Louis was compelled to assent to the Treaty of Ryswick, and thus submit to humiliating conditions of peace (1697).

War renewed.

42. A few years afterward, followed the great War of the Spanish Succession (1701). On the death of Charles II. of Spain, Louis claimed the throne of that country for his grandson Philip V., whilst the emperor supported the claim of his son, afterward the Emperor Charles VI. This led to an alliance between Holland and Germany against the French king; which was joined by William of Orange, Louis having recognized the son of James II. as king of England. The war was carried on in Spain, Belgium, Germany, and Italy; and the French experienced a series of disastrous defeats, having to contend against the genius of

War of the Spanish Succession.

* "It can never be known, with anything approaching to accuracy, how many persons fled from France in consequence of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Vauban, writing a few years after, said that 'France had lost a hundred thousand inhabitants, sixty millions of money, nine thousand sailors, twelve thousand tried soldiers, six hundred officers, and its most flourishing manufactures.'"—*Smiles's Huguenots.*

A whole district of London is peopled by the descendants of the Huguenots, who transported their silk manufactories from France to Spitalfields. Many found a home in northern Germany, carrying thither their arts, their thrift, and their industry.

Marlborough and Prince Eugene. The Treaty of Utrecht closed the war (1713), according to which Louis gave up some of his American possessions to England, but obtained the recognition of Philip V. as king of Spain.

43. The condition of France was now most deplorable, through the ambition, pride, and bigotry of her despotic monarch. He sustained, however, his haughty mien and pompous state ceremonial to the last, notwithstanding he had lost by death his son, the Dauphin, his eldest grandson, and many others of his kindred. He died in 1715, after a reign of more than seventy-two years, and was succeeded by Louis, his great-grandson.* Louis XIV. left several volumes of writings, containing his "Instructions to his Sons," and his letters, which give valuable information respecting the events of his reign. This period is regarded as the *Augustan age of French literature.*

Condition of France.

King's death.

44. Louis XV. was only five years of age on his accession, and the regency fell into the hands of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, who was controlled by his shameless and unprincipled minister, the infamous Abbé Dubois (*du-bwah'*). The education of the young king had been intrusted from an early age to Fleu'ry, noted for his scholarship and the prominent position which he subsequently occupied in the government of France. During the regency occurred the famous Mississippi Scheme, devised by a Scotch adventurer named John

Regency.

Mississippi Scheme.

* "At eight o'clock on the following morning, Louis XIV. expired. As he exhaled his last sigh, a man was seen to approach a window of the state apartment which opened on the great balcony, and throw it suddenly back. It was the captain of the body-guard, who had no sooner attracted the attention of the populace, by whom the courtyard was thronged in expectation of the tidings which they knew could not be long delayed, than, raising his truncheon above his head, he broke it in the center, and throwing the pieces among the crowd, exclaimed in a loud voice, 'The king is dead!' Then, seizing another staff from an attendant, without the pause of an instant, he flourished it in the air as he shouted, 'Long live the king!' And a multitudinous echo from the depths of the lately deserted apartment answered as buoyantly, 'Long live the king!'"—Purdoe's Louis XIV.

Law, who proposed to issue paper-money on the security of certain gold and diamond mines said to exist near the Mississippi River, in Louisiana, and in this way to extinguish the vast debt of the country. Such was the rage for speculation excited by this project, that the shares sold for forty times their par value. Thousands were ultimately ruined by this scheme.

45. In 1726 Fleury was made prime minister and a cardinal, in the seventy-second year of his age; and the country greatly prospered under his prudent and skillful administration, which lasted seventeen years. His policy was peaceful; but the marriage of Louis XV. with the daughter of the dethroned king of Poland, involved him in a war with Russia, Austria, and Denmark, to reinstate his father-in-law, Stan'is-las, on the throne; but in this object he was unsuccessful. The War of the Austrian Succession followed soon after, during which Fleury died (1743). The most important victory gained by the French during this war was that of Fontenoy, under Marshal Saxe (1745).

Fleury.

46. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle gave a brief rest to Europe, which was broken by the Seven Years' War in 1756. During this struggle, France lost Canada and some of her West Indian possessions; and her army was severely defeated at Min'den, by the English and Hanoverians, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick (1759). The Treaty of Paris deprived France of many important possessions, and left her heavily laden with debt (1763). The year 1769 is remarkable for the conquest of Corsica, after a brave struggle for its independence, under Paoli. During the same year was born on this island Napoleon Bonaparte, destined to play so great a part in the subsequent history of France. Louis XV. died in 1774, after having, by a long course of tyranny, debauchery, and reckless profusion, disgusted his subjects, and plunged the country into anarchy and

Seven Years' War.

Death and Character.

ruin.* Indeed, he partly realized the consequences of his reckless course, but joined with his favorite Madame de Pompadour in the well-known saying, "After us the deluge!"

STATE OF SOCIETY IN FRANCE,

During the Bourbon Period (1589–1774).

47. Absolutism characterizes this period of French history, for the king absorbed all the powers of the government. The Parliament of Paris sometimes tried to assert the power of the people, but the king could always crush its refractory spirit by a prompt dismissal of its members to their homes. The States-General gave place to the Assembly of the Notables, called to sanction the decrees of the monarch. Louis XIV. ruled with arrogance as well as supreme power. To one who spoke of the state in his presence, he haughtily exclaimed: "The state,—*I* am the state!"

Government.

48. The nobles, except those connected with the court, were poor and helpless; for, though their castles were in ruins, their fields uncultivated and unproductive, and they themselves with scarcely the means of subsistence, their pride of rank forbade that they should labor to improve their condition. The middle classes (*bourgeoisie*), merchants, trades-people, artisans, etc., were often affluent, sometimes rivaling the nobility in the richness of their houses, in their dress, and in their equipages. The general condition of the peasantry of France, during this whole period, was one of wretchedness and squalor.†

Condition of the people.

* "A strong, firm hand was needed to grasp the scepter so triumphantly borne by Louis XIV. for seventy years; but Louis XV. was as weak as he was vicious. His reign is the most humiliating, the most deplorable, in French history. It was a reign unredeemed by any splendor or by any virtue."—*Henri Martin's History of France.*

† The noble exercised absolute power over the peasants living on his estate, and there were thousands of serfs who were bought and sold with the land. Large tracts of land were set apart for hunting; and the starving peasant was often forbidden to till his ground lest it might disturb or injure the game. The *gabelle* was

49. Under the first of the Bourbons, who cherished the love of his country, great improvements were made; while the freedom granted by the Edict of Nantes gave an impulse to every kind of industry, fostered also by the wise measures of the Duke of Sully. The successors of Henry IV. were selfish, dissolute, and vainglorious; and while they encouraged science and art, they were utterly regardless of the interests of the people. The entire substance of the nation was wasted in their costly wars, their extravagant enterprises, and their luxurious excesses. Splendid buildings and works of art commemorated their taste and refinement, while the great mass of their subjects lived in penury and servitude. The ostentation and pride of the *Grand Monarque* reduced about one tenth of the people to hopeless beggary.

State of the nation under the Bourbons.

50. Commerce and manufactures of various kinds were encouraged by Henry IV.; but it was during the reign of Louis XIV. and under the administration of Colbert, that every department of industrial and commercial enterprise received its greatest impulse. He established companies to trade in the East and West Indies, thus forming a rival to the Dutch; he promoted the manufacture of fine cloths, encouraged the cultivation of mulberry-trees, and the art of making plate-glass, which had previously been imported into France from Venice. The manufacture of porcelain at Sevres (*sĕvr*), and the world-renowned Gobelin tapestry, date from this period. Machinery for weaving stockings was imported by Colbert from England, and lace-making was introduced from Flanders and Venice. Commerce was greatly promoted by the construc-

Commerce and manufactures.

a most oppressive tax, each family being required to buy a certain quantity of salt at least four times a year whether it was needed or not. The peasants were also compelled to labor upon the public works—building roads, bridges, etc., any required time without compensation, and sometimes to perform the most menial and degrading services for their tyrannical masters, who trampled under their feet even the most sacred rights of their dependents.

tion of the Canal of Languedoc, connecting the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean (1664–1681).

51. Among the most important reforms introduced during the same reign was the re-organization of the army and navy, accomplished under the direction of the great war minister Louvois. For the army, schools of artillery were founded at Metz, Douai (*doo-ā*), and Strasburg; and the art of fortification was carried to a high degree of perfection by Vauban. The bayonet as now used was invented at Bayonne (hence its name), in 1640. Marine arsenals were built at various ports. The navy of France at this time was large, and powerful enough to cope with the Dutch. One hundred vessels of war were built in the year 1672 alone.

Reforms.

PAVILION OF HENRY IV. AT ST. GERMAIN.

52. Numerous buildings of great magnificence were erected during this period: only a few can be here referred to. Without loving the arts as did his immediate predecessors, Henry IV. was not wanting in a taste for splendid architecture. He caused a beautiful pavilion to be constructed at St. Germain, where Francis I. had built rather a fortress than a royal residence; and finished the *façade* of the Hôtel de Ville, which had been commenced by Francis I., besides erecting or completing many other structures. Richelieu had a great love and taste for architecture. The erection of the Palais Cardinal occupied his attention for years, but it was not completed till after his death, when it became the Palais Royal, and the residence of the king. In the reign of Louis XIV., Paris was adorned with parks and

Architecture.

public buildings to an extent previously unknown; but beyond all others in extent and magnificence was the celebrated palace and gardens of Versailles (*vär-sälz'*). The Pantheon was built at the instance of Madame de Pompadour, to replace the church of St. Genevieve, the patron saint of Paris.

53. Many scientific and literary institutions date from the time of Richelieu. He established the French Academy in 1635, with the design to improve the language and literary taste of the people; and was a great patron of men of letters, among them Corneille (*kor-nale'*), the dramatist. Mazarin was also a friend to art, literature, and education. He founded various colleges and academies. During the reign of Louis XV. a host of illustrious men flourished. The Observatory was erected at Paris, and the celebrated astronomers, Roemer (from Denmark), Huyghens (from Holland), and Cassini (from Italy), were induced to settle in France.* The Military School was established in this reign.

Institutions.

54. The first newspaper in France was a weekly, issued in 1631, under the name, at first, of the *Gazette*, but afterward the *Gazette de France*. The paper was continued till 1789. The postal service was regulated in 1627, the price of carrying a letter from Paris to Lyons being fixed at about two cents. The first tax on tobacco was imposed in 1629. The use of coffee was introduced from Constantinople in 1660; and in 1720, a coffee plant, raised in the hothouse of the Garden of Plants, led to the extensive cultivation of coffee in the French West Indies. The cotton manufacture was commenced in the latter part of this period; and the first steam-engine was used in 1770, at Shaillot (*shä-yo'*). Street lamps came into use in Paris in 1767.

Innovations.

* The first of these, Roemer, discovered the velocity of light; Huyghens discovered the ring and one of the satellites of Saturn; and Cassini, four other satellites of the same planet, besides devising a method of ascertaining the size of the earth, by measuring the length of a degree of a meridian.

55. The dwelling-houses of the wealthy inhabitants of the cities often displayed regal luxury and splendor. Mary de' Medici brought from Italy a refined and luxurious taste, and patronized the eminent artists of her time. Expensive tapestry and Turkey carpets were used in palaces; also chairs, which, with table linen and many other things now common, were articles of luxury. Coaches were slowly coming into use. There was great extravagance in dress among the higher classes, particularly with the ladies. Elaborate head-dresses, long trains, and cork heels sometimes ten inches high are described among the eccentricities of the period. During the reign of Louis XIV., the ladies carried looking-glasses in their hands, to adjust their finery. The men too were guilty of similar extravagance. They wore wigs so finely curled, that to prevent them from being disordered, they were obliged to carry their hats in their hands instead of wearing them on their heads. They also frequently indulged in very costly jewelry.

Furniture.

Dress.

FOUNTAIN MOLIÈRE, PARIS.

56. This period abounded in men of genius. A few only can be mentioned here. Among poets and dramatists, Corneille (1606–1684), considered the father of French tragedy, and Racine (*rah-seen'*) (1639–1699), his great rival in the same field; Molière (*mo-lyār'*) (1722–1693), a comic dramatist of great genius; Voiture (*vwah-ture'*) (1598–1648), and Boileau (*bwah-lo'*) (1636–1711), distinguished poets, the latter a special favorite of Louis XIV. To these may be added Scarron (1610–1660), the husband of Madame de Maintenon, and La Fontaine

Literature.

(1621–1695), sometimes called the modern Æsop.* The most distinguished pulpit orators of the age of Louis XIV. were Bossuet (*bos-wa'*), Bourdaloue (*boor-da-loo'*), and Massillon (*mas-seel-yong'*), with whom may be associated the illustrious preacher and writer Fén'é-lon (1651–1715), author of *Télémaque* (*The Adventures of Telem'achus*), a school-book in use at the present day. Madame de Sévigné (*se-veen'ya*) (1626–1696), celebrated for her charming letters, represents her sex among the crowd of literary personages of the times. La Rochefoucauld (*rōsh-foo-ko*) (1613–1680) was the author of a book of *Moral Maxims* that was universally admired.

FÉNÉLON.

57. Among historians must be mentioned De Thou (*too*) (1553–1617), who wrote a history of France, and the Abbé de Fleury, the author of a history of the Church; among writers of fiction and *littérateurs*, Balzac (1594–1654), considered the best French prose writer of his time; Pas-cal' (1623–1662), who wrote the *Provincial Letters;* Le Sage (*săzh*) (1668–1747), the author of *Gil Blas*, and Rousseau (*roo-so'*) (1712–1778), one of the most eminent writers of the period just preceding the French Revolution. In addition to these should be mentioned the famous musician Lulli, the founder of the French opera; the painters Poussin

Other noted writers.

* "No nation could present, at the time of Louis XIV., so magnificent a collection of literary productions. Italy and Germany were in a complete moral decline; Spain, like a rich ruin, preserved, from its lost fortunes, only a few precious jewels, showing a few eminent painters and writers. England, at the beginning of the century, had had its Shakespeare; in the middle, its Milton; and at the end its Dryden; but this literature did not pass beyond the island where it belonged. France, on the contrary, was really at the head of modern civilization; and by the acknowledged superiority of its taste, it made all Europe accept the peaceful dominion of its artists and its writers."—*Duruy's History of France.*

(*poos-sang'*) and Claude Lorraine; the architects Mansard and Claude Perrault (*per-ro'*); the philosopher and scientist Des Cartes (*dā kart*), and the physicists Mariotte (*mah-re-ot'*) and Delisle (*dĕ leel*), with, toward the end of the century, the noted naturalist, Buffon (*boof-fong'*), and Diderot (*dee-dro'*), D'Alembert (*dă-long-bare'*), the authors of the *Encyclopædia;* besides Lavoisier (*lah-vwah-ze-ā'*), the father of modern chemistry, and the mathematicians La Place (*lah plahce*) and Legendre (*lŭ-zhondr*).

VOLTAIRE. (From a statue.)

58. Above and beyond all the literary men of his time must be mentioned Vol-taire' (1694 – 1778), who, whether as wit, poet, historian, or philosopher, shone with a luster surpassing all others. Unfortunately a skeptic in religion, he scoffed at divine revelation; and, hence, the brighter his genius shone, the more baneful was his influence upon the moral and religious progress of his time.* To Voltaire, Montesquieu (*mon-tes-ku'*) (1689–1755),†

Voltaire.

* Voltaire's true name was Arouet. He was born in Paris, in 1694; and at the age of twenty-one was sent to the Bastile for a satire on Louis XIV., of which, however, he was not the author. In 1718, he published the tragedy entitled *Œdipe*, and in 1723, the poem *La Henriade*, in which he defended religious toleration. He subsequently spent three years in England, and some time afterward resided at the court of Frederick of Prussia on terms of intimacy with that monarch.

† Montesquieu was the author of a work entitled *The Spirit of the Laws*, which is still a standard. His influence, though revolutionary, was beneficent; and his writings were far in advance of the age, in the lofty spirit of freedom and humanity with which they are replete. Rousseau, Montesquieu, and Voltaire, and the philosophers and free-thinkers of their age, hurried on a mighty convulsion which many believe could not long have been delayed.

Rousseau,* and the *Encyclopædists* is attributed, in part, that dreadful overturning of the institutions of society that formed so terrible a characteristic of the great French Revolution.

SECTION III.

Revolutionary France.

59. Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather at the age of twenty years. His character presented a striking contrast to that of the preceding king, being beneficent and upright; and he commenced his reign with the sincere desire to ameliorate the condition of his suffering people, by redressing their grievances, and restoring the financial prosperity of the kingdom. He was, however, deficient in judgment and decision; and, although he selected for his ministers the patriotic Turgot (*toor-go'*) and Malesherbes (*mal-zärb'*), he soon became involved in great difficulties on account of the irreparable confusion of the finances. These were still further deranged by the extravagant habits of the court, presided over by the young

Character.

Marie Antoinette.

Difficulties.

* "The writer who acquired the most extensive and pernicious influence over the mind of France at this period was undoubtedly Jean Jacques Rousseau. In his works on the *Inequality of the Condition of Mankind*, in his *Emile*, *Contrat Social*, and *Nouvelle Héloise*, he developed his notions on the reconstruction of society with a subtlety, a charm of style, a specious air of philanthropy, a false morbid sensibility, peculiarly attractive to the French character, but the effects of which went directly to undermine and subvert the very foundations of religion, morality, and legitimate government."—*Student's History of France.*

and fascinating queen, Marie Antoinette (*an-twah-net'*), daughter of Maria Theresa.* (See page 605.)

60. Various ministers of well-established reputation for financial skill were appointed, among them the celebrated Neck'er, a banker of Geneva; but the national difficulties increased. A war with England, caused by the interference of France in the struggle of the English colonies of America for independence, still further embarrassed the government of Louis XVI., by compelling a new levy of taxes, greatly to the discontent of the people, who complained loudly of the extravagance of the court and of Marie Antoinette. At length an assembly of the States-General was vehemently demanded, a meeting of which had not been called since 1614. To this Louis gave his assent (1789).

Other troubles.

States-General.

61. By the advice of Necker, it had been decreed that the representatives of the Third Estate should be equal in number to those of the nobility and clergy together; and, on their assemblage at Versailles, a dispute arose as to the mode in which the votes should be taken—whether the three orders should vote as separate bodies, or all the votes should be taken numerically. The latter mode was advocated by the Third Estate; and, after contending for several weeks against the two other orders, they finally resolved themselves into a distinct body, under the title of the *National Assembly*, and claimed to be the legitimate representatives of the French people (June 17). They were soon joined by many of the

Dispute.

National Assembly.

* "Meanwhile the fair young Queen, in her halls of state, walks like a goddess of Beauty, the cynosure of all eyes; as yet mingles not with affairs; heeds not the future; least of all, dreads it. Weber and Campan have pictured her there within the royal tapestries, in bright boudoirs, baths, peignoirs, and the Grand and Little Toilet; with a whole brilliant world waiting obsequious on her glance: fair young daughter of Time, what things has Time in store for thee! Like Earth's brightest Appearance, she moves gracefully, environed with the grandeur of Earth: a reality, and yet a magic vision; for, behold, shall not utter Darkness swallow it?"—*Carlyle's French Revolution.*

clergy. Thus was inaugurated that tremendous social and political convulsion known as the French Revolution, which in its progress not only overturned the government of France, but threw the whole civilized world into violent commotion, uprooting institutions that had withstood the assaults of ages.

Revolution.

62. The king and his ministers, dismayed at the determination shown by the lower order, and desiring to check their proceedings, attempted to exclude them from their hall, and thus suspend their sittings. But the Assembly, through the energy of their president Bail'ly (or *bah-ye'*), and the eloquence of their great leader Mirabeau (*me-rah-bo'*), thwarted this attempt; and the king showed his indecision by afterward sanctioning their measures, and requesting all the deputies of the clergy and nobility to join with the Third Estate. But the queen opposed these concessions. By her advice large bodies of troops were collected to overawe the Assembly; and Necker, the popular minister, was dismissed. An insurrection of the populace of Paris ensued, and the Bastile (*bas-teel'*), a noted prison, was stormed and captured by the mob (July 14, 1789).* The excited populace

Proceedings of the Assembly.

THE BASTILE.

Insurrection.

* The Bastile was begun in 1369, by Charles V., and was enlarged in succeeding reigns. Thousands of persons, many of whom were princes and members of distinguished families, were here imprisoned till death came to their relief. When

then proceeded to Versailles, and demanded that the king and royal family should return to Paris; and Louis felt himself obliged to comply.

63. Lafayette (*lah-fa-et'*) was then placed at the head of the militia, called the National Guard; but, as its members sympathized with the popular movements, the king was without any support except from the Swiss and German mercenaries. The violence of the Parisian mob, inflamed by the political writings which were circulated among the people, soon became ungovernable; and several obnoxious individuals were seized and put to death with great cruelty. The Assembly energetically prosecuted its measures of reform, and decreed the entire abolition of the principles and practices of the former government. They subsequently agreed upon a constitution, limiting the power of the king and securing popular rights; and then passed a resolution by which the National Assembly (now called the *Constituent Assembly*) was dissolved, and a new body authorized to be summoned, entitled the *Legislative Assembly*, to which none of the members of the National Assembly were eligible (1791).

National Guard.

Parisian mob.

LAFAYETTE.

Constituent Assembly.

64. Meanwhile, several insurrections had taken place in Paris; and the king and his family had been treated with the greatest indignity by the infuriated mob, whose passions were particularly excited against the unfortunate queen.

the Bastile was captured by the people (1789), seven persons were found in its cells, one of whom had been there thirty years. On its site now stands the "Column of July," which was erected in memory of the patriots of 1789 and 1830.

Attempting flight, the king and his family were pursued, arrested, and brought back to Paris. The Legislative Assembly met in 1791; and, although the king had accepted the constitution and promised to abide by its requirements, a large party were hostile to the monarchy, desiring to destroy it, and establish a republican form of government. These views were fostered by the political clubs which had been formed in Paris a short time after the commencement of the revolution, among which the famous Jac'obin Club had attained the complete control of the Assembly.

Flight of the king.

Clubs.

65. The king repeatedly made concessions to the republicans, while he cherished schemes for escaping from their control; but each month added to his humiliations and to the boldness of his enemies. Foreign nations looked on with alarm, and sympathized with the royal family. Austria and Prussia declared war upon the French, in order to rescue the hapless monarch. This still further excited the Parisian mob. They rushed to the Tuileries (*tweel're*), the palace in which the king resided, took it by storm, massacred the brave Swiss soldiers who defended it, and obliged the king to take refuge in the Assembly, by whose orders he and his family were imprisoned (August 10, 1792).

Royal family.

Insurrection.

The National Convention.

66. The supreme authority being now seized by the municipality of Paris, a special criminal tribunal was instituted; and all persons suspected of hostility to the revolution were dragged before it, condemned, and massacred in the most shocking manner. Lafayette, being at the head of the army, refused to recognize the authority of the Assembly, but, not being sustained by the troops, he retired from the country. The Legislative Assembly was dissolved; and having been re-organized as the *National*

Criminal tribunal.

Convention, it formally abolished the monarchy, and declared France a republic (September, 1792). The next month, the revolutionists were emboldened by the victory gained by the French General Dumouriez (*du-moo-re-a'*) over the Austrian army at Jemmapes (*zhem-map*), in Belgium.

Republic.

67. The Convention, now composed of strict republicans, was divided into two parties, bitterly hostile to each other, one called the Mountain Party, and the other the Girondists (*zhe-rond'ists*). Of the former, the leaders were Robespierre (*ro'bes-peer*),* Dan'ton, and Marat (*mah-rah'*), noted for their wickedness and cruelty. Among the most eminent of the Girondists was Vergniaud (*vārn-yo'*), distinguished for his eloquence. One of the first acts of the Convention was the trial of the king, who was charged with conspiring against the liberties of France; and, notwithstanding the eloquent and unanswerable defense made by his advocate, Desèze (*dŭh-sāz'*), he was found guilty of the charges, with very few dissenting votes, and condemned to death. The sentence was executed by the guillotine, one

Parties.

Leaders.

ROBESPIERRE.

Fate of Louis.

* "Maximilian Robespierre was born at Arras, of a poor family, honest and respectable; his father, who died in Germany, was of English origin. He was the Luther of politics; and in obscurity he brooded over the confused thoughts of a renovation of the social world and the religious world, as a dream which unavailingly beset his youth, when the Revolution came to offer him what destiny always offers to those who watch her progress—opportunity. He seized on it. He was named deputy of the Third Estate in the States-General. Alone, perhaps, among all these men who opened at Versailles the first scene of this vast drama, he foresaw the termination; like the soul, whose seat in the human frame philosophers have not discovered, the thought of an entire people sometimes concentrates itself in the individual, the least known in the great mass."—*Lamartine's History of the Girondists.*

week afterward (January 21, 1793). Among those who voted for the king's condemnation was the infamous Duke of Orleans, who took part in the popular excesses, abandoning his title and taking the name of Philip E-gal'i-té (*equality*).

68. The Mountain Party having triumphed in the Convention, the Girondist leaders were guillotined, and with them the celebrated Madame Roland. The *Reign of Terror* was then inaugurated, during which the Revolutionary Tribunal, controlled by Robespierre, Danton, and others, caused thousands to be seized and hurried to the guillotine.* Among these victims was the unfortunate Marie Antoinette (October, 1793), who, during her imprisonment, had been subjected to every indignity and insult which could be devised by her relentless jailers. Similar deeds of cruelty were perpetrated in other parts of France, the number guillotined being estimated at more than 18,000. With scarcely an exception, the prominent actors in these atrocities, one after another, met with a violent death. Marat was assassinated by Charlotte Corday; and Robespierre's faction, obtaining the ascendency, sent Danton and his adherents to the guillotine.

Reign of Terror.

MADAME ROLAND.

* "Night and day the cars incessantly discharged victims into the prison; weeping mothers and trembling orphans were thrust in without mercy with the brave and the powerful; the young, the beautiful, the unfortunate, seemed in a peculiar manner the prey of the assassins. Nor were the means of evacuating the prisons augmented in a less fearful progression. Fifteen only were at first placed on the chariot, but their number was soon augmented to thirty, and gradually rose to eighty persons who daily were sent forth to the place of execution; when the fall of Robespierre put a stop to the murders, arrangements had been made for increasing it to one hundred and fifty. An immense aqueduct, to remove the gore, had been dug as far as the Place St. Antoine (*plahs sang ahn-tuahn*); and four men were daily employed in emptying the blood of the victims into that reservoir."—*Alison's History of Europe.*

A few months later, the Reign of Terror was closed by the execution of Robespierre himself (1794).*

THE DIRECTORY.

69. A new constitution was then adopted by the Convention, the executive authority being intrusted to a Directory, consisting of five members. This constitution being opposed by several of the Parisian Sections (divisions of the city), who threatened an insurrection, Napoleon Bonaparte, a young officer, who had previously distinguished himself at the siege of Tou-lon′, was selected to conduct the military operations against the insurgents. Planting his cannon adroitly, he opened fire upon the populace, and dispersed them without difficulty (1795).

Napoleon Bonaparte.

70. The service rendered by Napoleon on the "Day of the Sections," was soon afterward rewarded by conferring upon him the command of the Army of Italy, designed to operate against the Austrians (1796). In two campaigns he achieved a succession of the most brilliant victories over the Austrian armies; and entering the Venetian territory, in consequence of hostilities committed against the French, he captured Venice itself, and overturned her ancient government (1797). The Austrian emperor was at length compelled to assent to the terms of the treaty of Cam′po For′-mi-o, by which an independent commonwealth was established in northern Italy, called the Cisalpine Republic; but the city of Venice was ceded to Austria.

Austrian war.

71. Bonaparte, after considerable persuasion, induced the Directory to consent to an expedition designed to conquer

* "When Robespierre ascended the fatal car, his head was enveloped in a bloody cloth, his color was livid, and his eyes sunk. When the procession came opposite his house, it stopped, and a group of women danced round the bier of him whose chariot-wheels they would have dragged, the day before, over a thousand victims. Robespierre mounted the scaffold last, and the moment his head fell, the applause was tremendous. In some cases the event was announced to the prisoners by the waving of handkerchiefs from the tops of houses."—*Hazlitt's French Revolution.*

Egypt, as a means of attacking the commerce and power of England in the East. Landing there with an immense army, he captured Alexandria, and then marched toward Cairo (*ki'ro*), which, after defeating the Mam'e-lukes in the noted Battle of the Pyramids, he entered (1798). This gave him possession of the country; but a few days afterward, Nelson destroyed his fleet, in the memorable Battle of the Nile, and thus cut off the retreat of the invaders.

Expedition to Egypt.

72. The Turkish Empire having declared war against France, Bonaparte at once invaded Syria, captured Jaf'fa by assault, and cruelly caused twelve hundred Turkish prisoners to be put to death. He then laid siege to Acre (*ah'ker*), but failed to capture it; although he defeated the Turks with great slaughter at Mount Tabor. Returning to Egypt, he attacked and almost annihilated a considerable army of Turks at Aboukir (*ah-boo-keer'*), General Murat (*mu-rah'*), at the head of the French cavalry, particularly distinguishing himself in this obstinate battle (1799). Leaving his army with General Kleber (*kla'ber*), he then returned to France, and was received with unbounded enthusiasm by the people.

Other events.

The Consulate and Empire.

73. Meanwhile, a new coalition of the great powers of Europe had been formed against France, and the Russians under Su-var'off had gained several important victories in Italy. This made the Directory very unpopular, and Bonaparte took the opportunity of overturning the government at the point of the bayonet. A new constitution was then formed, and accepted by the people, according to which the executive power was vested in three Consuls, elected for ten years. Bonaparte was appointed First Consul (1799), and by his vigor and address introduced reforms in every department of the government.

Russian successes.

Revolution.

74. The military operations were conducted with splendid ability and success. The Austrians were defeated by General Moreau (*mo-ro'*) in the battle of Ho-hen-lin'-den; while Napoleon himself gained new laurels by his daring passage of the Alps, and by his brilliant victory over the Austrians at Ma-ren'go (1800). This compelled the emperor of Austria to conclude the Treaty of Lune'ville (1801), which was followed by the Treaty of Amiens, in which peace was made with England (1802).

Military operations.

NAPOLEON I.

Bonaparte was next elected Consul for Life, and, various conspiraces being formed against him, he determined still further to augment and perpetuate his power, and caused himself to be declared by the legislature Emperor of the French (1804).

Consul for Life.

75. A short time after this, Moreau was banished for being concerned in a conspiracy against the government, and eleven of the other conspirators were put to death. Napoleon received the crown of France from the hands of the Pope; and subsequently, at Milan, caused himself to be crowned King of Italy, with the famous "iron crown" of the Lombards (1805). These assumptions of power led to another coalition against him, on the part of England, Austria, Russia, Sweden, and Prussia; but Napoleon, with his accustomed promptitude, marched against the Austrians, and succeeded in capturing a large army at Ulm (1805). This was soon followed by the decisive battle of Aus'ter-litz,* in which the

Moreau.

King of Italy.

Napoleon's victories.

* For the location of these places, see Map No. XVII. and Map No. XIX.

combined armies of the Austrians and Russians were routed with overwhelming loss. The emperors of France, Austria, and Russia were present at this battle, and the conditions of peace were at once agreed upon. The treaty was afterward formally concluded at Presburg, Austria making great sacrifices of territory.

76. Napoleon now took possession of Naples, and conferred the crown upon his brother Joseph. His brother Louis was made king of Holland; and various principalities and duchies were bestowed upon his most eminent generals and ministers. He next formed a union of several states of Germany, which was styled the Confederation of the Rhine, and placed under his own control. This was virtually a dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire; and the emperor, accordingly, assumed the title of Emperor of Austria, relinquishing that of "King of Germany and Emperor of the Romans," which had hitherto been borne by the German monarchs. (See page 431, note.)

Naples.

German Empire.

77. These encroachments and usurpations led to the Fourth Coalition, consisting of Prussia, Russia, Austria, Great Britain, and Sweden, against the French Empire. The Prussian monarch raised an immense army of 150,000 men, and commenced hostilities; but Napoleon, with wonderful skill and promptitude, attacked and utterly defeated the Prussians, in the sanguinary battle of Je'na (1806). So complete was the victory, that the kingdom of Prussia lay at the mercy of the victor, who a few weeks afterward entered Ber-lin' in triumph. There he issued his celebrated decree, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade, and forbidding all commercial intercourse, on the part of any nation, with Great Britain or her colonies.

Fourth Coalition.

Defeat of Prussia.

78. During the winter, he attacked the Russians at Eylau (*i'lou*); but his army was repulsed with tremendous slaughter

(February, 1807). Six months later, with an army of 200,000 men, he gained a victory over the Russians at Fried'land; and thus was enabled to dictate terms of peace to the Russian emperor Alexander at Til'sit. Peace was also made with Prussia, on condition that she should give up the territory between the Rhine and Elbe rivers, which Napoleon bestowed on his youngest brother Jerome, with the title of King of Westphalia (1807).

Defeat of Russia.

Peace.

79. The commercial restrictions imposed by Napoleon upon the different countries of Europe, as declared in the Berlin decree (called the Continental System), were not fully obeyed by Portugal, into which country British merchandise was freely admitted, and thence was transported into Spain. Napoleon, therefore, ordered General Junot (*zhoo-no'*) to invade Portugal and take possession of Lisbon; and the prince regent was compelled to seek refuge with the British fleet in the Tagus, whence he sailed to Brazil, and fixed the seat of his government in that country. Portugal was then declared a province of the French Empire.

Portugal.

MURAT.

Napoleon next determined to take possession of Spain; and, after compelling its lawful king to resign the crown, he conferred it upon his brother Joseph Bonaparte, whom he had transferred from the throne of Naples. The latter throne he conferred on Murat, who had married his sister (1808).

Spain.

80. The people of Portugal and Spain were aroused to insurrection by these arbitrary measures, and the British Government resolved to aid them in their efforts to expel the invaders.

The Peninsular War followed, which lasted nearly five years, and in which Wellington gained those resplendent victories which have already been referred to in the history of England. Meanwhile, hostilities were again resumed on the part of Austria, with armies which amounted, in the aggregate, to about 500,000 men. Napoleon, notwithstanding his inferior forces, defeated the Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, at Eck'muhl (1809), but was compelled to fall back from his position after the bloody battle of As'pern. Soon afterward, he gained a decisive victory at Wagram (*wah'gram*); after which the Austrian emperor was obliged to submit to terms of peace dictated by the victor (1809).

Peninsular War.

Austrian defeats.

81. While these events were in progress, the Pope (Pius VII.), continuing his opposition to Napoleon, finally excommunicated him. The latter retaliated by annexing Rome to the French Empire, and causing the Pope to be imprisoned in France. This was because of the Pope's refusal to concur in the Continental System, and to recognize Murat as king of Naples.* Having divorced his faithful and virtuous wife Josephine, he next haughtily demanded the Austrian princess Maria Louisa in marriage; and so thoroughly had the Emperor Francis been subdued at Wagram, that he was compelled to give his assent; and the nuptials, accordingly, took place a short time afterward (1810). In order the more effectually to carry out his policy of commercial prohibition, he, in the same year, seized the Hanse towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, and annexed the northern coast of Germany to the French Empire.

Pope

Marriage of Napoleon.

Hanse towns

* The unbounded arrogance of Napoleon is shown in the following: "Your highness is sovereign of Rome, but I am its emperor. All my enemies must be yours. It is not fit that any agent of the king of Sardinia, any Englishman, Russian, or Swede, should reside at Rome, or in your states, or that any vessel of those powers should enter your ports."—Napoleon to Pius VII. Feb. 22, 1806.

82. Difficulties having arisen with Sweden and Russia, in consequence of the French emperor's arbitrary demands in the carrying out of the Continental System, the latter determined to invade Russia with an overwhelming force. Accordingly, in June, 1812, he set out with a splendidly equipped army of nearly 500,000 men, crossed the Niemen, and directed his march to Mos'cow, the ancient capital of the Russian Empire. Arriving at Smo-lensk', he captured the city after a tremendous conflict, which closed with the retreat of the Russians. About two weeks after this, he fought a desperate battle with the Russian army at Bor-o-di'no (*i* like *e*); but although 45,000 of the enemy were either killed or wounded, he failed to destroy their army, and gained no decisive victory. His own losses in these engagements were immense (September 7).

Russian war.

83. Unable to defend Moscow, the Russians abandoned it, and the French entered it in triumph ten days after the battle of Borodino. But the city had been set on fire by the Russians, and the French vainly attempted to stop the conflagration. Nine-tenths of the whole city became a prey to the flames. This disconcerted the plans of Napoleon, who had designed to pass the winter at Moscow; and as the Russians were menacing his communications with Smolensk, where his magazines and reserves had been left, he determined to retreat (October 19).

Burning of Moscow.

84. But the dreadful Russian winter having commenced, the French soldiers perished by thousands of cold and famine. To add to their sufferings, they were constantly harassed by the Russian army, particularly by the Cossack cavalry, being in almost constant conflict with them, until they reached the Ber-e-si'na River, where their passage was disputed by the Russians in strong force. The loss of life was frightful. Multitudes fell by the sabres of the Russians, but still larger numbers perished in the icy waters of the river; so that when

Retreat of the army.

the crossing was effected only 20,000 men remained to Napoleon of the magnificent army with which he had set out.

Ney.

During those terrific scenes and conflicts, Marshal Ney (*na*) gained the appellation of the "Bravest of the Brave," by his fortitude and heroic conduct.

85. After the dreadful passage of the Beresina, Napoleon abandoned the army, and fled in disguise to Paris, where his

Continued war

arrival restored public confidence and courage; and such were his extraordinary energy and the resources of the French nation, that, in the beginning of the next year (1813), he was enabled to resume operations with an army of 350,000 men, exclusive of his forces in Spain. Europe was once more allied against him; but, on the famous battle-ground of Lut'zen, he defeated the army of the allies, and triumphantly entered the city of Dresden. Two other battles were fought with indecisive results, after which he consented to an armistice.

86. But operations were soon resumed by the allies with an immense army; and they attacked the French at Dresden,

Dresden.

but were repulsed with severe loss. Moreau, fighting on the side of the allies, was here mortally wounded (July 26). In October, the allies, with large reinforcements, threatened Napoleon's communications, and

Leipsic.

compelled his retreat to Leīp'sic, where the greatest conflict of the war ensued, the allied army amounting to about 250,000 men; while that of Napoleon contained less than 150,000. This has been called the Battle of the Nations. After a desperate struggle, which lasted three days, the French were compelled to retreat; and Napoleon's great conquests were at once lost. Against the overwhelm-

Paris taken.

ing forces of the allies, Napoleon could make no effectual resistance. Having defeated every army sent to impede their progress, they at last penetrated into France, and Paris was finally obliged to capitulate (March 31, 1814).

Restoration of the Bourbons.

87. After the capitulation of Paris, a provisional government was established under Talleyrand, by which the dethronement of Napoleon was decreed, and the brother of Louis XVI. was placed on the throne with the title of **Louis XVIII.**, the dauphin Louis XVII. having died in the Temple, in Paris. Thus the Bourbon family was restored (May 3, 1814). In the mean time, Napoleon, finding himself deserted by many of his most trusted generals, accepted the terms offered him by the allies, abdicating the throne and retiring to the island of Elba, near the western coast of Italy, the place appointed for his residence. The dismemberment of the empire then followed, France being reduced to the limits which it had in 1792. Louis pretended to grant a constitutional charter, but, like a genuine Bourbon, he reserved the right to alter its provisions according to his own pleasure.

Louis XVIII.

Napoleon an exile.

88. The next year, while a congress of the European powers was assembled at Vienna, to arrange and settle the affairs of Europe, they were suddenly surprised by the escape of Napoleon from Elba. Landing on the southern shore of France (at Cannes [*kan*]), he was at once received with enthusiasm by the troops; and Marshal Ney, who had been sent to oppose his progress, having deserted to him, he once more entered Paris in triumph, and was greeted with acclamations of joy by all classes (March 20, 1815). Louis XVIII. having fled, Napoleon found himself again on the throne of France; and in less than two months, an army was organized of over 200,000 men, exclusive of the National Guards.

Escape from Elba.

89. Meantime, the allies had prepared for the impending conflict. Three vast armies were collected; the first consisting of Austrians, under Prince Schwarz'en-berg; the second, of British, Germans, and Prussians, under Wellington and

Blu'cher (*bloo'ker*); and the third, of Russians, under the Emperor Alexander. Operations commenced on the 15th of June; and, on the 18th, was fought the memorable battle of Wa'ter-loo, in which the allies under Wellington repulsed the French, and drove them into irretrievable retreat and ruin. Napoleon fled to Paris; but finding that no further effort could be made to retrieve his ruined fortunes, he proceeded to the coast, where he surrendered himself to the commander of a British vessel of war. By agreement of the allied sovereigns, he was sent a captive to the little island of St. He-le'na, where he arrived in October, 1815, and where he continued to reside as a prisoner until his death, in 1821, at the age of fifty-two years. Such was the termination of this extraordinary career of ambition and conquest—the most extraordinary perhaps in the world's annals.*

Waterloo.

Final banishment.

90. Louis XVIII. Soon after the battle of Waterloo, Paris was entered by the allies, and the greater part of the French territory was occupied by foreign armies. Louis XVIII. was restored, and Marshal Ney, who had deserted to Napoleon, was shot as a traitor. The same year Murat, having made a rash attempt to regain the throne of Naples, was seized and put to death. The measures of the restored Bourbon dynasties of Spain and Italy had been so tyrannical, that insurrections broke out in those countries. In Spain, the army, under General O'Donnell, supported the liberal constitution, and Ferdinand, the king, was obliged to submit. Louis XVIII. sent an army into Spain to restore the supreme authority to

Chief events

Revolution.

* In person, Napoleon was below the medium height, and, during his early years, was slenderly built; being thin, at times, to emaciation. His head was disproportionately large, with features classically molded, an olive complexion, and large, dark eyes. He was habitually abstracted, seeming to commune with himself even when listening to others; yet his conversation was engaging, from the vigor and clearness of his thought, and the condensed precision of his language.

In 1840, Napoleon's remains were transported from St. Helena to Paris, and there [illegible]mbed with every possible circumstance of splendor and solemnity.

Ferdinand; and the constitutionalists having been defeated, the liberal government was overturned (1823). Louis XVIII. died the next year (1824), and was succeeded by his brother Charles, Count of Artois (*ar'twah*).

91. Charles X. During this reign, the contests between the ultra-royalist and liberal parties in the Chamber of Deputies, as the legislature was called, became very violent; and Charles, taking sides with the former, adopted very arbitrary measures to enforce his views. The liberal party having secured a majority in the Chamber, the king caused the latter to be dissolved, altered the law of elections, and suspended the liberty of the press. In consequence of these despotic measures, the people rose in insurrection; and, after a contest of three days, dispersed the royal guards and sacked the Tuileries. Lafayette was then appointed general of the National Guards, and the Chamber of Deputies having declared the throne vacant, summoned Lou'is Phil'ippe (or *loo'e fil-leep'*) to occupy it (1830). Charles took refuge in England.

Chief events.

Insurrection.

92. Louis Philippe was the son of the infamous Duke of Orleans, who, under the assumed name of *Philip Egalité*, had taken part in the excesses of the revolution, and had become one of its many victims. Since that dreadful period, Louis Philippe had suffered every variety of fortune, being an exile from his native land, and in a condition of privation and distress traveling or sojourning in foreign countries. A charter of rights was agreed upon by the Chamber of Deputies, and accepted by the newly elected king. His reign was for several years quite prosperous; and the country advanced in education, commerce, and internal improvements. The king, however, was very odious to the extreme republicans, and several attempts were made upon his life. He afterward became generally unpopular by his opposition to the reforms which were demanded in the government, as well

Previous life.

Chief events.

as by his avarice and his selfish concern for the aggrandizement of his family.

93. An attempt to repress, by arbitrary prohibition, a reform banquet appointed on Washington's birthday (February 22, 1848), excited an insurrection of the people, with whom the troops fraternized; and Louis Philippe was compelled to flee. With much difficulty, he made his escape to England, where he died about two years afterward. One of the most important events of this reign was the conquest of Algiers (1847), after a long and sanguinary struggle on the part of the native tribes, under their leader Abd-el Ka'der (1847). It was annexed to France as a province under the name of Algeria.

Revolution.

The Second Republic.

94. After the flight of the king, a provisional government was instituted, consisting of seven members, among whom were La-mar-tine'(*-teen*) and Ar'a-go, distinguished for their attainments in literature and science. France was declared a republic, with the motto, "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity;" hereditary titles and distinctions of nobility were abolished, and a national assembly was called for the purpose of framing a constitution. The constitution afterward adopted vested the government in a president, to be elected for four years, and a national assembly. By the election which followed, Louis Napoleon was chosen, by an immense majority, first president of France (1848).*

Provisional government.

President.

95. In the first year of his presidency, a revolution broke out in Rome, and the Pope (Pius IX.) fled to Gaeta *gah-a'-*

* Louis Napoleon was the nephew of the great Napoleon, being the son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais, daughter of the Empress Josephine. During the reign of Louis Philippe, he became noted for two attempts to obtain possession of the government by endeavoring to raise a revolt in his favor among the troops. One of these was at Strasburg, in 1836, and the other at Boulogne, in 1840. For the *second he* was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but succeeded in making *his escape* in 1846. These rash enterprises subjected him to considerable ridicule.

tah). Louis Napoleon having sent an army under General Oudinot (*oo'de-no*) to restore him to his government, the republicans under Gar-i-bal'di were entirely defeated, and Pius IX. returned to Rome the next year. Revolutions broke out in other parts of Italy, with similar want of success. Difficulties arising between the President and the Assembly, the former determined to overturn the existing form of government, so as to obtain an increase of power. His measures were devised and executed with great adroitness. Having gained over the military, he seized and imprisoned such of the members of the Assembly as were hostile to his views, as well as other distinguished citizens from whom he apprehended opposition. He then suppressed the newspapers, and proclaimed a dissolution of the Assembly and Council of State (December, 1851).

Garibaldi.

Government change.

96. A despotic constitution sketched by Louis Napoleon was accepted by the people, and he was elected president for a term of ten years. A short time after this, he obtained the passage of a decree by the Senate, declaring him hereditary emperor; and this decree was ratified by the popular suffrages. Napoleon Bonaparte's son by Maria Louisa (Napoleon II.) having died, Louis Napoleon assumed the title of Napoleon III. Thus was effected one of the most disgraceful usurpations recorded in history, by means of a dishonorable stratagem which was dignified by the name of *coup d'état* (*koo-dĕ-tah'*)—i.e., *stroke of state policy.*

Revolution.

THE SECOND EMPIRE.

97. In 1854 the French united with the English in the Russian War, and under Marshal Pelissier (*pa-lis-se-a'*) acquired the glory of the final storming of the tremendous fortresses of Sebastopol. In 1859, war having arisen between Austria and Sardinia, the French emperor formed an alliance with the latter, and took the

Russian War.

field in person in northern Italy. Austria suffered disastrous defeats at Ma-gen'ta and Sol-fer-i'no (*i* like *e*), and by the treaty of Vil'lafran'ca was obliged to relinquish possession of Lombardy. In 1862 a French army occupied Mexico; and, on the invitation of Napoleon, Archduke Maximilian, of Austria, took the throne as emperor of that country. His government was, however, soon overturned, and he himself was shot by order of the insurgent general (1867).

Austria.

Mexico.

98. The preservation of the papal power in Italy from the attacks of Garibaldi and his republican associates was a striking feature of the emperor's policy, which in its general character was strongly on the side of absolutism as opposed to the spread of liberal principles and the establishment of democratic governments. Under his sway, France, though kept under severe restraint by the imperial power, made great and rapid strides in every department of national well-being; and her internal improvements and progress in commerce and manufactures were unsurpassed by those of any other nation.

Policy of Napoleon.

99. In 1870 war was declared by France against Germany; and the French armies, under Marshals McMahon and Bazaine, marched to the Rhine. But the German states, with perfect unanimity, joined all their forces under King William of Prussia, to repel the invaders; and immense armies, splendid in discipline and equipment, were promptly concentrated near the east bank of the Rhine, under the Prussian monarch, aided by Von Moltke and other generals. In the first conflicts, McMahon was defeated and driven into retreat; but he took up a strong position at Sedan (*sa-dong'*). Here was fought a great and decisive battle, on the 1st of September; and the French, driven from their position and completely surrounded, were compelled to surrender. More than 80,000 men laid down their arms, and Napoleon

German War.

French disasters.

himself became a prisoner. While a part of the German army marched on Paris, and invested that city, Bazaine was shut up in Metz, where, on the 21st of October, he surrendered his army prisoners of war.

Third Republic.

100. Paris held out until January 28, 1871, when it yielded, and was occupied by the German forces. Meanwhile, Napoleon being a prisoner, the French Republic had been declared, and Thiers was elected president. A treaty was then concluded, by which France ceded to Germany the greater part of Alsace and Lorraine, and agreed to pay an immense sum of money as an indemnity for the war. Soon afterward an insurrection broke out in Paris, supported by the Commune, which lasted several months, during which the insurgents committed many acts of atrocity and violence. It was put down in May, 1871. On this, finding it impossible to reconcile the hostile factions, Thiers resigned (May, 1873); and Marshal McMahon was elected president in his stead. The death of Napoleon occurred in England (1873).

Republic.

Commune.

101. During the same year, occurred also the trial of Marshal Bazaine, upon charges based on his surrender of the army at Metz. It resulted in his conviction, and he was sentenced to degradation from his rank as general, and death. But he was recommended to mercy by his judges, and President McMahon commuted the sentence of death to twenty years' seclusion. In 1873, the German occupation of French territory ceased, the last installment of the war indemnity having been paid. There were many parties at this time among the French people opposed to the republic, causing much political agitation. The triumph of the republicans in 1879, was soon followed by the resignation of President McMahon; and he was succeeded bv M. Grévy, who is still in office (1882).

Chief events.

State of Society in France,

During the Revolutionary Period (1774–1881).

102. At the time of the accession of Louis XVI. there were many indications of an impending revolution. New ideas had been infused into the minds of men, which produced an opposition to prevailing institutions; and the wrongs which the people had suffered for centuries from the rule of an arbitrary monarchy, and from a corrupt court and nobility, began to be more clearly seen and more deeply felt. There were many influences that conspired to fan the smouldering fire into a flame.

Signs of change.

103. The French Revolution has been attributed to the following causes: 1. The despotism, recklessness, and profligacy of the French court during the three preceding reigns; 2. The unjust laws that favored the nobility and clergy at the expense of the lower classes; 3. The diffusion of knowledge and the spread of infidelity caused by the writings of Voltaire and others; 4. The desire for political freedom inspired by the success of the American Revolution, in which so many of the French had borne a prominent part. To these must be added the disorder of the finances, which, in the first part of the reign of Louis XVI., almost stopped the wheels of government.

Causes of the Revolution.

104. The people—the *Third Estate*—had bided their time, and at last it came. The first session of the far-famed States-General of 1789 gave, in various minor incidents, indications of the storm that was so soon to burst forth with resistless fury. The representatives of the people refused to sit with uncovered heads, when the nobles and clergy, according to the old custom of every former session, put on their hats after the completion of the king's speech; and this led to a tumult only to be ended by the king's taking off his own hat. Since that great era, revo-

Course of the people.

lution has been the characteristic of French politics. No government that has been established has been other than insecure and temporary, because it has not rested on principles thoroughly fixed in public opinion. The popular mind, indeed, has seemed to revolt from all government, only submitting to it for a time as a necessity. The *Commune* of 1871 was the last, but perhaps the most striking, illustration of this fact.

Costume.

105. In the first part of the reign of Louis XVI., when Dr. Franklin visited France in 1776, in behalf of his American compatriots, the people were charmed with his simplicity of dress and manners; and their love for the cause which he represented led them to imitate him. Gold lace and embroidery and powdered curls gave way to plain dresses and straight-cut hair; but this was soon followed by an extraordinary affectation of English modes of costume. At the beginning of this period, the ladies wore hoops, and dressed their hair in the most extreme fashion. It was drawn up in the form of a huge pyramid on the top of the head; and caricatures might be seen representing the hair-dresser mounted on a ladder dressing a lady's hair. This extravagance was succeeded, for a time, by a period of great simplicity in dress, white muslin dresses and straw hats taking the place of silks, satins, and velvets. The antique then came into vogue in imitation of the classic heroes of Greece and Rome. In more modern times the world of fashion has constantly had its center at Paris.

France under Napoleon.

106. The civil administration of the great Napoleon was characterized by the highest intelligence and the most beneficent enterprise. The *Code Napoleon*, a compilation of the laws of France, prepared under his direction, was perhaps the greatest of all his achievements for the good of France. He did much also for education, of which no system existed in France before his time. He created numerous lyceums, in which the instruc-

tion given was literary, scientific, and moral; and several law and medical schools. The system of primary instruction in France, now so complete, was created subsequent to Napoleon's time.

107. The public works, including magnificent buildings, public monuments, roads, etc., are far too many to enumerate.

Public works.

Among them may be mentioned the great breakwater at the harbor of Cherbourg, which was commenced in 1783, but not finished till 1853. During the present century, France has shared, in common with other civilized nations, that astonishing progress in science and in

Science and art.

the useful arts which have done so much to advance the interests of mankind by improving the condition of society. The railroad, the steamship, and the telegraph, have revolutionized the social, political, and military system of every civilized nation in the world; and in none has there been greater progress in the use of these than in France. The World's Fair (*Exposition Universelle*) has been an important auxiliary in developing the industrial and artistic capabilities of this great nation.*

108. Every department of literature is adorned with the

Literature.

products of French genius. In the early part of this period, the following writers may be enumerated:

Crebillon (*krĕ-be-yong'*) (1674–1762), a tragic poet, ranking next to Corneille and Racine.

Volney (1757–1793), eminent for his historical researches.

Malesherbes (1721–1794), an able statesman, and writer on politics, law, and finance; author of *Thoughts and Maxims.*

André Chenier (*shen-ya'*) 1762–1794), the poet of the Revolution, whose career was cut short by the guillotine.

Beaumarchais (*bo-mar-sha'*) (1732–1799), who wrote *The Marriage of Figaro* and *The Barber of Seville,* two famous comedies.

* The idea of the *Exposition Universelle* originated in France, but was first realized in England. In the Paris *Exposition* of 1867, as well as in 1878, there was presented in an eminent degree the wonderful creative skill of the French people.

Bernardin St. Pierre (1737–1814), author of the popular story *Paul and Virginia.*

109. At a later period, the following writers have been most conspicuous:

De Staël (*stah'el*) (Mme.) (1766–1817), the most talented woman of her time, who wrote *Corinne*, and other works of genius.

De Genlis (*zhong-le*) (Mme.) (1746–1830), author of many interesting juvenile works, romances, memoirs, etc. Of the latter, her *Observations on the Literary History of the Nineteenth Century* possesses the greatest interest.

Later period.

Sismondi (1773–1842), author of the *History of the Italian Republics.*

Chateaubriand (*shah-to-bre-ahng'*) (1769–1848), author of the *Genius of Christianity*, a work remarkable for its purity and finished style.

Béranger (*bĕ-rahn-zha'*) (1780–1857), the greatest of French lyric poets, noted for his popular songs.

Guizot (1787–1874), one of the most illustrious of French statesmen and historians; author of the *History of Civilization*, and other works.

Thierry (*te-ā'ree*), author of the *History of the Norman Conquest*, and other historical works.

Comte (*kongt*) (1798–1857), author of the *Positive Philosophy.*

VICTOR HUGO.

Thiers (1797–1877), author of many valuable historical works, *History of the French Revolution, Consulate and Empire*, etc.

Michelet (*meesh-la'*) (1798–1874), author of the *History of France*, and many other noted works.

Cousin (*koo zahng*) (1792–1867), a noted philosopher.

Victor Hugo (born 1802), the most celebrated French writer of modern times,—poet, dramatist, historian, philosopher, and moralist; remarkable for the splendor as well as the universality of his genius.

Alexander Dumas (*du-mah*) (1803–1870), one of the most prolific of novelists.

Ernest Renan (*rĕ-nahng*) (born 1823), author of the *Life of Jesus, Saint Paul*, etc.

Flammarion (born 1842), an astronomer and popular writer, author of *Plurality of Worlds, God in Nature*, etc.

Rulers of France,

During the Revolutionary Period.

Name.	*Date of rule.*	*Name.*	*Date of rule.*
Louis XVI., Bourbon king	1774-1793	L. Philippe, Bourbon-Orleans	1830-1848
Reign of Terror	1793-1794	Louis Napoleon, President	1848-1852
Directory	1794-1799	Napoleon III., Emperor	1852-1870
Napoleon, First Consul	1800-1804	Thiers, L. A., President	1871-1873
Napoleon I., Emperor	1804-1814	McMahon, M. E. P. M., Prest.	1873-1879
Louis XVIII., Bourbon king	1814-1824	Grévy, F. J. P., President	1879-
Charles X., Bourbon king	1824-1830		

Summary of Principal Events and Dates.

	A.D.
Treaty of alliance with the United States	1778
Meeting of the States-General. Revolution commenced	1789
Meeting of the Legislative Assembly	1791
The first French republic declared	1792
Execution of Louis XVI. Reign of Terror	1793
Execution of Robespierre	1794
Napoleon's victorious campaign in northern Italy	1794-5
Napoleon's expedition to Egypt. Battle of the Pyramids	1798
Napoleon's great victory over the Austrians at Marengo	1800
Treaty of Amiens	1802
Surrender of Ulm. Battle of Austerlitz. Battle of Trafalgar	1805
Battles of Jena and Auerstadt. Berlin taken	1806
Battle of Eylau. Peace of Tilsit	1807
Taking of Vienna. Battles of Aspern and Wagram	1809
Invasion of Russia by Napoleon. Moscow burned	1812
Battles of Lutzen, Dresden, and Leipsic	1813
Invasion of France. Capture of Paris. Abdication of Napoleon	1814
Battle of Waterloo. Napoleon banished to St. Helena	1815
Death of Napoleon at St. Helena	1821
Taking of Algiers. Abdication of Charles X	1830
Defeat of Abd-el-Kader. Conquest of Algeria	1847
The great breakwater completed at Cherbourg	1853
Rome taken by the French. The Pope restored	1849
Termination of the Crimean war by the treaty of Paris	1856
Battles of Solferino and Magenta	1859
The city of Mexico entered by the French under Marshal Bazaine	1863
The Archduke Maximilian declared Emperor of Mexico	1864
War against Germany. McMahon and Bazaine defeated	1870
Defeat of the French at Sedan. Napoleon a prisoner.	1870
Siege of Paris by the German army	1871
Resignation of President Thiers. Death of Napoleon III	1873
Trial and condemnation of Marshal Bazaine	1873
Death of Thiers	1877
Resignation of President McMahon	1879

Topical Review.

EMINENT PERSONAGES.

Who were they?
In what period did they live?
With what events connected?

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CHAPTER XI.

STATES OF MODERN EUROPE.

SECTION I.

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

1. THE modern history of Germany begins with the reign of **Maximilian I.** (1493–1519), called the *Penniless*, on account of his want of money to carry on his numerous wars. He was one of the group of prominent characters for whom that age was especially celebrated,—Pope Julius II., the founder of St. Peter's at Rome; Ferdinand of Aragon; Emanuel the Great of Portugal, the patron of arts and sciences and the friend of Vasco da Gama; Henry VIII. of England with his great minister, Cardinal Wolsey; and Bajazet II., one of the greatest of the Turkish sultans. It was in this reign that Martin Luther published his famous ninety-five theses against the doctrines of the Catholic Church (1517).

Contemporaries

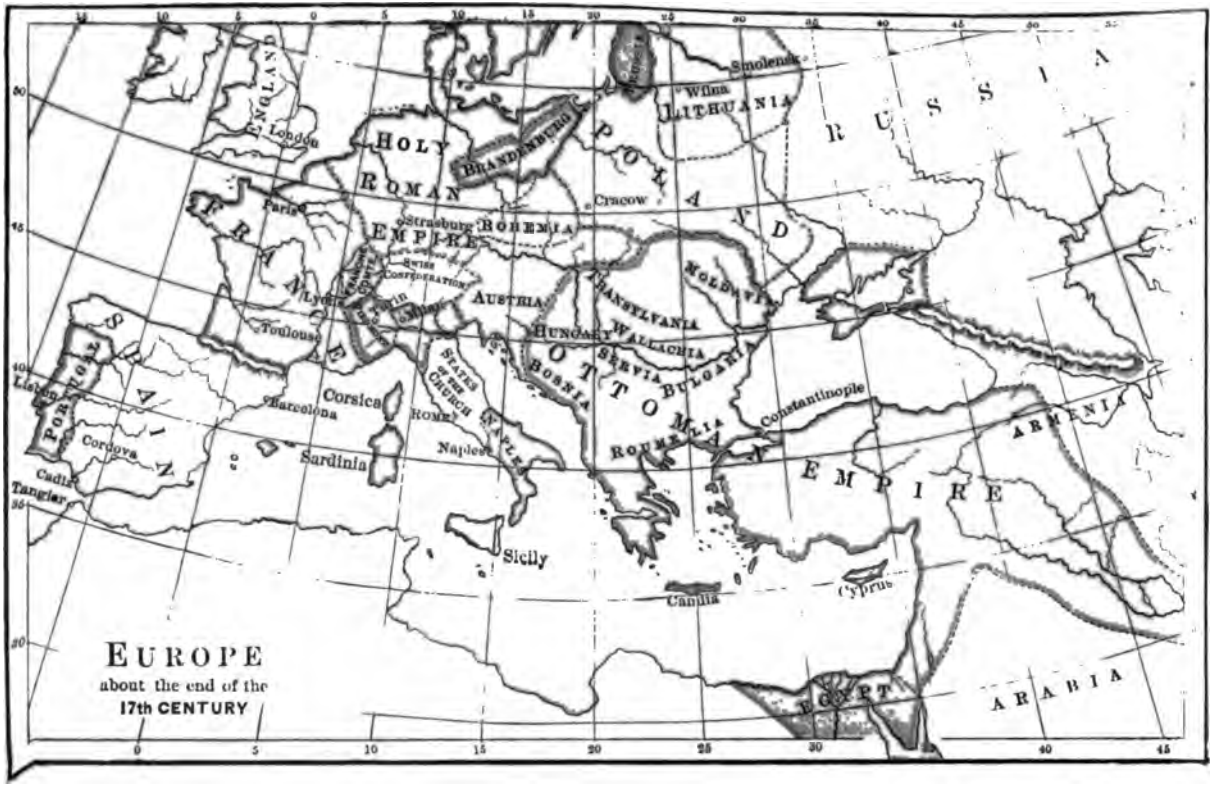
Luther.

2. **Charles V.**, the grandson of Maximilian, who succeeded him (1519), being crowned at Aix-la Chapelle, was one of the greatest monarchs of ancient or modern times. He had become king of Spain by hereditary right, previous to his election as emperor of Germany; and he was, besides, ruler over Austria, the Netherlands, and Naples. His

Dominions.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XVIII.

What was the situation of: The ROMAN EMPIRE? BOHEMIA? AUSTRIA? HUNGARY? OTTOMAN EMPIRE? TRANSYLVANIA? WALLACHIA? MOLDAVIA? SERVIA? BULGARIA? BOSNIA? ROUMELIA? POLAND? LITHUANIA? PRUSSIA? BRANDENBURG? SWISS CONFEDERATION? FRANCHE COMTE? NAPLES? STATES OF THE CHURCH?


EUROPE
about the end of the
17th CENTURY
ENGLAND
London
HOLY
ROMAN
EMPIRE
BRANDENBURG
POLAND
Smolensk
Wilna
LITHUANIA
RUSSIA
Cracow
Paris
Strasburg
BOHEMIA
FRANCE
Lyons
Toulouse
Turin
Milan
AUSTRIA
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
HUNGARY
WALLACHIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
BOSNIA
OTTOMAN
EMPIRE
Constantinople
ROUMELIA
ARMENIA
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Cordova
Cadiz
Tangier
Barcelona
Corsica
Sardinia
STATES OF THE CHURCH
ROME
NAPLES
Naples
Sicily
Candia
Cyprus
EGYPT
ARABIA

contests with Francis I. of France have already been referred to. In 1521 a diet was held at Worms, at which Luther having been cited by Charles was commanded to recant; and on his refusal was pronounced a heretic, and put to the ban of the empire. He, however, escaped, and was kept concealed for nine months by his friend and protector, Frederick of Saxony. From the spread of Luther's tenets grew what is called the Reformation.

Luther.

MEMBERS OF MAXIMILIAN'S COURT.
(From a drawing by Albert Dürer, 1512.)

3. The doctrines of the Reformation made great progress in Saxony, favored as they were by the Elector; and several of the other princes of Germany supported Luther's views. In the diet held at Spire (1526), a temporary decree of toleration was granted the Lutherans; but a subsequent diet at the same place revoked the decree, and declared Lutheranism heretical (1529). Against this revocation fifteen imperial cities, and seven reigning princes, including the Elector of Saxony, protested as being unjust and

Reformation.

oppressive; and hence the followers of Luther were afterward called Protestants. At Augsburg they published their Confession of Faith, which had been drawn up by Melanchthon (1530),* and signed by the Protestant princes. The latter, after the condemnation of the Confession of Augsburg by the diet, formed for their defense the famous League of Smalcald (1531).

Protestants.

4. Meantime, the Lutheran doctrines had spread rapidly through several of the German states, from Saxony northward to the Baltic. After the peace of Cambray (see page 545), the emperor engaged to extirpate Lutheranism; but he was compelled to unite the German forces in order to repel the invasions of the Turks; and, consequently, at the diet of Nuremberg he made a treaty with the Protestant rulers, to be binding until a general council of the Church should be called. After the Turks had been defeated and driven back, Charles, being kept busy by his war with the Barbary powers and with France, found himself still unable to cope with the Protestant leaders, and renewed the peace of Nuremberg. Thus Protestantism was unchecked for the time, and spread not only in Germany, but in Denmark, Sweden, Holland, England, and other countries. Luther in the mean time translated the Bible into the German language, and also composed many hymns, one of which became the battle-song of the Reformation. He is regarded as the founder of German church poetry and music.

Growth of Protestantism

5. A general council was at last called by Pope Paul III., to meet at Trent,† in the Italian part of the Tyrol, and the Protestants were invited to attend; but they refused to

* *Philip Melanchthon* (born in 1497, died in 1560) was, next to Luther, the chief leader in the Protestant movement. He was eminent for his scholarship and intellectual ability, as well as for his modesty and gentleness of disposition.

† The Council of Trent was one of the most important synods of the Catholic Church. It was opened in December, 1545, and was held at intervals until the twenty-fifth session, December, 1563. Its decrees, defining certain doctrines of the church, were confirmed by the Pope the next year.

›wledge the Pope's authority or to be bound by the de- of the Council. This brought on a religious war, and les V. marched into northern Germany, and ted the Elector of Saxony at Mühlberg, on lbe, taking him prisoner (1547). The latter was com- l to give up most of his dominions to Maurice, so cele- d subsequently as the champion of Protestantism, though he played the part of an apostate. Luther died just e this war commenced (February 18, 1546).*

Religious war.

Charles now eagerly pushed forward his plan to destroy stantism; and, under his orders, Maurice of Saxony laid siege to Magdeburg, and compelled its capitulation. Disgusted, however, with the oppressive measures of the emperor, Maurice now determined to take the side of the Protestants; and having formed an alliance with France (see page 546), he marched rapidly to the south while Charles was busied in the affairs of the Council, and narrowly missed ng him a prisoner (1552).† The next year, t was held, and the assembled German es agreed to the Treaty of Passau, made in between Charles and Maurice, and permitting religious

Maurice.

CHARLES V.

Treaty of Passau.

Charles V. was urged by the Duke of Alva and others to burn Luther's body itter the ashes, as those of a heretic; but he answered like a man: 'I wage against the dead.' Herein he showed the better side of his nature, although r a moment."—*Bayard Taylor.*

prised of his danger, Charles fled across the Alps amid the darkness of nd in a violent storm of rain, though he was suffering from the gout at the is courtiers following as best they could, many of them on foot. Maurice l Innspruck a few hours after the emperor had left it; not sorry to find him or he said he had "no convenient cage for such a falcon." The Council of roke up, for the time, in dismay, its members scattering to their homes.

freedom to the Protestants. Three years afterward, the Diet of Augsburg, under the sanction of Charles V., confirmed these stipulations, and thus gave peace to Germany (1555). Charles V. abdicated the throne in 1556, and was succeeded by his brother Ferdinand (1556–1564).

Thirty Years' War.

7. The next important event in the history of Germany is the Thirty Years' War, which commenced in 1618, in Bohemia, on account of the attempt of the king (Ferdinand II.) to extinguish Protestantism within his dominions. During this outbreak the king was elected emperor (Ferdinand II.); but the Bohemians refused to acknowledge him, and chose Frederick, Elector-palatine, son-in-law of James I. of England. Frederick being defeated in a great battle near Prague, was obliged to flee (1620); and the Bohemian Protestants were persecuted without mercy. Hostilities were continued in other parts under Count Mansfield, Frederick's general, against Tilly,* the imperial general, until 1625, when several of the northern states of Germany formed a defensive union against the emperor, and invited Christian IV., King of Denmark, to act as their leader. This was the end of the first period of the war.

Cause.

First period.

8. Christian entered Germany with his forces, and was joined by Count Mansfield and Duke Christian of Brunswick, a noted character at that time. James I. of England, his brother-in-law, also sent him assistance. There was, however, no zealous union among the German states. At this time Albert Wallenstein, a wealthy

Second period

* Tilly was already famous, in the Bavarian service, both for his military talent and his inhumanity. He was a small lean man, with a face almost comical in its ugliness. His nose was like a parrot's beak, his forehead seamed with deep wrinkles, his eyes sunk in their sockets and his cheek-bones projecting. He usually wore a dress of green satin, with a cocked hat and long red feather, and rode a small, mean-looking, gray horse."—Bayard Taylor.

Bohemian, offered his services to Ferdinand in the Catholic interest, and they were accepted. Tilly and Wallenstein joining their forces soon drove the Danes out of Germany, and Christian made a treaty of peace with the emperor, at Lubeck (1629). This ended the second period of the war.

9. The next year, partly through the intrigues of Richelieu, Wallenstein, the greatest of the imperial generals, was dismissed; and Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was induced to enter the contest as the champion of the Protestant cause. With a small, but finely disciplined army, he invaded Germany, and passed triumphantly through the country, after having defeated Tilly in a great battle near Leipsic (1631). Tilly being slain soon afterward, the emperor was obliged to recall Wallenstein, who by his skillful operations soon retrieved the imperial cause. In 1632 occurred the memorable battle of Lutzen, in which the Protestants triumphed, but with the loss of their great leader Gustavus (1632). Soon after this, Wallenstein, being accused of treason, was assassinated by the command, as is supposed, of the emperor (1634). This ended the third period of the war.

Third period.

WALLENSTEIN.

10. Richelieu now directly took part in the struggle on the side of the Protestants, allying France with Sweden, Holland, and the Protestant states of Germany against his implacable foe, the House of Austria (1635). During the remainder of the war, the imperial cause declined, through the influence of Richelieu's masterly diplomacy and energetic military operations. The Emperor Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by

Intervention of France.

his son, Ferdinand III. Richelieu died in 1642; but the war lingered on six years longer. The peace of Westphalia established the religious independence of the Protestant states, made Holland and Switzerland free, increased the territories of France, and stripped the German Empire of very much its ancient power and splendor (1648).

11. The long reign of the emperor *Leopold I.* (1658–1705) was principally occupied in wars with the Turks and with France. The former, in 1683, penetrated to the heart of the empire, and laid siege to Vienna, from which Le'o-pold was compelled to flee. Through the courage and address of the celebrated Polish king, John So-bi-es'ki, the city was relieved, and the Turks were obliged to retreat to their own dominions. Germany was involved in the wars caused by the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. of France; and several brilliant victories were gained in her interest by her illustrious general, Prince Eugene, who, as has been already stated, participated in the great battles fought during the War of the Spanish Succession (see page 560).

Leopold I

12. Prince Eugene also gained several important victories over the Turks, of which the greatest were that of Zenta, in Hungary (1697); and that of Bel-grade' (1717), the latter resulting in an immense loss to the Turks, including the city itself, over which, as being the key of Hungary, very many severe conflicts had taken place between the Austrian and Ottoman forces. *Charles VI.*, who reigned from 1711 to 1740, was the last of the male line of the Hapsburgs; and his death was followed by disputes which led to the famous War of the Austrian Succession. In this war, Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, joined the enemies of Maria Theresa, in their attempt to deprive her of her dominions; and the Elector of Bavaria, assuming the imperial throne, under the title of Charles VII., and being assisted by France, advanced to Vienna, and compelled her to flee to

Defeat of the Turks.

Austrian Succession.

Hungary. The Hungarians drew their swords enthusiastically n her favor, and Charles VII. was forced to retreat. The atter died in 1745; and Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, the husband of Maria Theresa, was elected emperor, nder the title of Francis I.

13. The reign of **Francis I.** was distinguished for the great even Years' War, which broke out eight years after the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1756). Great Britain nd France quarreled about their colonial possessions in North America; Austria was eager to egain the territories which Frederick of Prussia had conuered during the previous war; nd the Empress of Russia was esirous of curbing the pride nd ambition of the Prussian nonarch. Poland and Sweden oined Russia; and thus Frederck, whose only ally was Great Britain, had to contend against ive great states. The Prussian ing was, however, the greatest eneral of his age; and the nany splendid victories which e gained with his small but highly disciplined army, illusrate, in a very striking manner, to what an extent the genius f a military commander can triumph over superior numbers. This war was closed by the Treaty of Paris, in 1763. (See PRUSSIA.)

Seven Years' War.

MARIA THERESA.

14. During the reign of Francis II. (1792–1835), occurred he great wars with Napoleon, the result of which was, hat the Empire of the West, or Holy Roman Empire, was dissolved in 1806, after an existence f more than a thousand years. Most of the tates were formed into the Confederation of the Rhine; and Austria became an hereditary empire, over which Francis

End of the Empire.

continued to rule until his death in 1835.* After the defeat of Napoleon at Leipsic, in 1814, the Confederation of the Rhine was dissolved; and in 1815 the Congress of Vienna formed the Germanic Confederation, consisting of thirty-nine states, of which the central assembly, or diet, held its sessions at Frankfort on the Main (*mine*).† Subsequently, the peace of Germany was much disturbed by the repeated contests of Austria and Prussia for supremacy in the affairs of the Confederation. During the revolutionary period of 1848–9, there was an earnest effort to establish a national union of the German states; and in 1849 William I., King of Prussia, was elected by the National Parliament Hereditary Emperor of Germany; but the kingdoms of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Hanover, and Saxony withheld their consent, and Austria protested against the measure. The Prussian king, therefore, declined the honor.

Other changes.

15. At this time Bismarck, since so prominent in German affairs, had commenced his career in the Prussian Parliament, by an effort to consolidate the German nationality by harmonizing the measures of Austria and Prussia. Schleswig and Holstein, provinces of Denmark, after a short war with the latter, were jointly occupied by these two powers (1864), through his influence, he having

Bismarck.

* The disasters of 1805 destroyed the hold of Austria upon the German states; and several of the latter allied themselves to France for self-protection. In 1806, the arch-chancellor of Germany announced to the diet that he had chosen for his successor one of Napoleon's uncles; and shortly after this announcement sixteen German princes signed an act of allegiance to the French emperor, and thus dissolved their connection with the German empire. This was followed by a declaration on the part of Napoleon that he no longer recognized such an empire. Thus a German confederation was formed independent of the Austrian Government, and Francis declared himself emperor of Austria.

† The kingdom of Westphalia, created by Napoleon, was abolished. Prussia was enlarged by the addition of the Rhineland, a part of Saxony, and Swedish Pomerania. The Tyrol and Salzburg were given back to Austria. Hanover was erected into a kingdom; and Weimar, Oldenburg, and Mecklenburg became grand-duchies; Hamburg, Frankfort, Bremen, and Lubeck were declared free cities. Thus, instead of the restoration of the empire, there was established a German *Bund* Political and religious freedom was proclaimed at the first session of the diet at Frankfort in 1816 (November 5).

been made, two years before, the minister-president (prime minister) of Prussia. A quarrel ensued soon afterward; and Austria demanded that the diet should call into the field the military forces of the states against Prussia on account of her invasion of Holstein. This brought on the war of 1866 against Austria.

War against Austria.

16. Bismarck had sagaciously contrived to obtain the alliance and co-operation of Italy, with the design on the part of the latter to acquire possession of the Venetian territories. The Italians were defeated; but the Prussians, under the command of their king (William I.), invaded Bohemia; and, in the battle of Sad'o-wa, defeated the Austrians with great loss. A treaty soon followed, by which Austria was excluded from the Germanic Confederation; and Prussia, after incorporating with her own dominions some of the states, formed the North German Confederation, consisting of the states north of the Main, including herself as the leading state, and Berlin as the capital. Thus, through the Seven Weeks' War, Count Bismarck obtained for Prussia that controlling influence in Germany for which he had been for some time planning.

Sadowa.

BISMARCK.

Results.

17. But the ultimate object of this wily and far-seeing statesman had not yet been attained. This was the complete union of Germany, with Prussia at its head. As auxiliary to that object, he concluded a secret treaty with the South German states, they engaging to place their armies at the disposal of Prussia, in case of war. Napoleon III., becoming aware of the plans of the German minister, determined to thwart them, if possible.

Object of Bismarck.

He demanded that Luxemburg and Mentz should be ceded to France, thus extending its eastern frontier to the Rhine; but Bismarck replied: "Not an inch of land, not a single fortress shall be given up, cost what it may." War would have commenced immediately, but France was not prepared. In 1870, the Franco-Prussian War broke out, by the march of the French armies to the Rhine, and resulted in their total defeat (see page 302). At its close William I. was proclaimed "King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany" (1871). Bismarck was shortly after promoted to the rank of prince, with the title of Chancellor of the German Empire.

Franco-German War.

Result.

AUSTRIA.

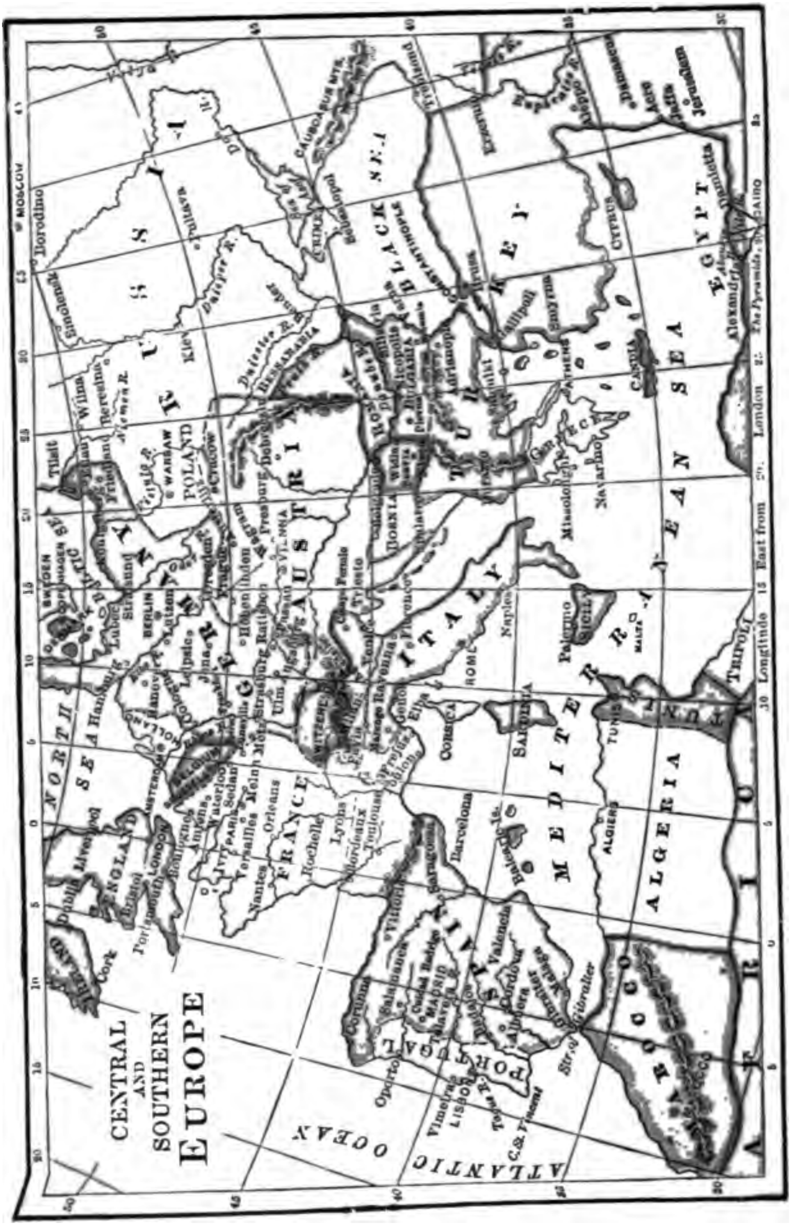
18. Austria, after its organization as a separate empire in 1806, continued to be involved in the great conflict with Napoleon, in which she suffered terrible disasters. The great defeat at Wagram left her powerless; and the Emperor Francis was obliged to submit to the humiliation of accepting the victorious Corsican as his son-in-law (1810). The most important event in the history of Austria after the Congress of Vienna was the revolt of Hungary, followed by a terrible and gigantic war, which terminated in the total defeat of the Austrians, after which the Hungarians renounced their allegiance to the House of Hapsburg, and chose their leader Kossuth (*kosh'oot*) as governor. Austria then obtained the intervention of Russia; and the Hungarian general treacherously surrendered (1849). The revolt was then crushed with horrible cruelties; but Kossuth and other Hungarian patriots found an asylum in Turkey, and Kossuth escaping visited England and the United States. Since then, concessions have been made to the Hungarians, and a separate constitution and diet granted. This double nation now bears the title of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy (1882).

Wars with Napoleon.

Other events.

[redacted]

No. 19.



SECTION II.

PRUSSIA.

19. Prussia derives its name from the *Bo-rus'si*, a fierce and warlike tribe of the Slavonic race, who early settled on the lands bordering on the Baltic Sea. In the first part of the eleventh century they were partially subdued by Bo-les'las, king of Poland; but, for more than two centuries, they resisted every effort made to convert them to Christianity. This was finally established among them by means of the crusade carried on against them by the Knights of the Teutonic Order,* during more than fifty years. The country remained under the government of the Knights for about two centuries, when it became partly dependent upon the great kingdom of Poland (1462).

Early history.

20. The Duchy of Bran'den-burg, a part of these Prussian territories, became, in 1640, the nucleus of the present kingdom of Prussia, through the efforts of Frederick William, styled the Great Elector. From Poland he obtained a recognition of his claim to the Duchy of Prussia, which had been hitherto possessed by that kingdom. He

Great Elector.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY, Map No. XIX.

What is the situation of: PARIS? Amiens? Luneville? Ivry? Rochelle? Orleans? Boulogne? Lyons? Frejus? Toulon? BRUSSELS? Waterloo? AMSTERDAM? BERLIN? Stralsund? Friedland? Dresden? Lutzen? Jena? Leipsic? Ulm? Augsburg? Passau? Spire? Hohenlinden? Hanover? Lubeck? Moscow? Warsaw? Cracow? Smolensk? Borodino? Wilna? Tilsit? Eilau? Poltava? CONSTANTINOPLE? Nissa? Widin? Belgrade? Nicopolis? VIENNA? Presburg? Wagram? Austerlitz? Prague? ROME? Campo Formio? Marengo? Pavia? Palermo? MADRID? Vittoria? Corunna? Talavera? Ciudad Rodrigo? LISBON? Vimeira? Albuera? ATHENS? Missolonghi? Navarino?

* The order of Teutonic Knights was founded during the Crusades. Their first seat was at Acre; but, after the destruction of the kingdom of Jerusalem, they removed to the banks of the Vistula, and succeeded finally in establishing a sovereignty, which had the control of nearly three millions of people.

particularly distinguished himself for his successful wars against the Swedes, whom, in 1679, he entirely expelled from the country. He was also noted for his strenuous efforts in the cause of the Protestants; for which he received letters of congratulation and thanks from Oliver Cromwell. When the Edict of Nantes was revoked by Louis XIV., many of the exiled Huguenots found a refuge in the dominions of the Great Elector.

Prussia a kingdom.

21. Prussia became a kingdom in 1701, the last elector, Frederick III., having been acknowledged king by the emperor of Germany, on condition that he should aid the cause of Austria in the War of the Spanish Succession. His troops gained great distinction by their valor in the battle of Blenheim. He was succeeded by Frederick William I., in 1713, noted for his harsh and eccentric character, his fondness for tall soldiers, and his savage treatment of his son, who succeeded him as Frederick II., known as Frederick the Great (1740–86). Under the latter, Prussia became one of the greatest military powers in Europe, partly through the magnificent army which had been collected by Frederick William I., and disciplined to the highest degree of efficiency.

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

Frederick the Great.

22. Taking advantage of the disputes regarding the claims of Maria Theresa, Frederick invaded Silesia, and defeated the Austrians (1741). This brought on the war of the Austrian Succession, in which the Prussian king gained several victories over the Austrians and Saxons, taking Dresden, where he made peace *(1745).* In the Seven Years' War, his victories over the com-

bined forces of the great powers of Europe gave him a place among the most renowned generals of history. French, Austrian, and Russian armies, each double the number of the Prussians, were defeated in turn (1757–8). The Russian defeat at Zorndorf was perhaps the most memorable in the war (1758). The treaty of 1763 left him with considerably extended dominions. In 1772, the Prussian territories were also enlarged by the First Partition of Poland. Frederick by no means neglected the internal improvement of his kingdom, encouraging agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. He was passionately fond of literature, was an intimate friend and associate of Voltaire, and acquired himself some distinction as an author.

Seven Years' War.

Character.

23. The wars with Napoleon occurred during the reign of Frederick William III. In these, Prussia suffered the terrible overthrow of Jena (1806), but redeemed her honor through the achievements of Blucher (*bloo'ker*), to whose skill, courage, and promptitude the great victories of Leipsic and Waterloo were partly due. Blucher's hatred of Napoleon and the French was intense; and, had he not been overruled by the other generals, Paris, in 1814, would have been given up to be pillaged by the soldiers.

Jena.

Blucher.

24. By the Congress of Vienna the Prussian territories were much enlarged; and during the subsequent part of the reign of Frederick William, the condition of Prussia was greatly improved. The establishment of common schools of a high order of excellence did much to enlighten the people and augment the real strength of the kingdom. Frederick William III. was succeeded in 1840 by his son, Frederick William IV., who died in 1861. During the reign of his successor, William I., the changes in the Prussian dominions occurred, which have been explained in connection with the history of Germany. By the recon-

Later events.

struction of the Empire of Germany, King William as emperor is now one of the great potentates of the world (1882).

SECTION III.

Holland and Belgium.

25. Holland and Belgium, called the Netherlands, or Low Countries, constituted, in 1843, a part of Germany. For several centuries it was under the rule of petty princes, and afterward formed a part of the duchy of Burgundy. Several of its cities, Ghent, Antwerp, Brussels, and Mechlin, grew strong and rich by their trade and manufactures. The death of Charles the Bold and the marriage of his daughter, Mary of Burgundy, to Maximilian, brought the Netherlands for a time under the sway of Austria; but they subsequently passed by inheritance to Charles V., who was the grandson of Maximilian and Mary.

Early history.

William of Orange.

26. The historical importance of these states commences in the reign of Philip II. of Spain, the son and successor of Charles, through the resistance made by their spirited inhabitants to the tyranny and intolerance of that bigoted monarch. Under their great leader, William of Orange, surnamed the "Silent," the "Seven United Provinces" successfully revolted against the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, viceroy of Philip, and

Rise of the republic.

declared their independence, William becoming their first president with the title of Stadtholder (1581). This illustrious soldier and statesman was assassinated in 1584,* but the United Provinces were presided over by the princes of Orange until the French Revolution. The other provinces (Belgium) continued to belong to Spain until they were transferred to Austria (1713).

William of Orange.

27. The Dutch republic became, a short time after its independence, the most formidable maritime power in the world. The part taken by it in the great European wars, and its successive contests with Great Britain, have already been related. During the French Revolution, the National Convention having declared war against Holland, the country was overrun by the French armies; and the anti-Orange faction excited a popular insurrection which expelled William V., the last of the Stadtholders, and led to the establishment of the Batavian Republic, under the control of the French (1795). Belgium became a part of France.

Dutch republic.

28. Napoleon Bonaparte made his brother Louis king of Holland, but afterward dethroned him, and annexed the country to France. After the fall of Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna reunited Holland and Belgium, and thus formed the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which was placed under one of the Orange family, with the title of William I. This union lasted till 1830, when Belgium successfully revolted, and became a separate kingdom, Leopold, a German prince, being placed upon the throne. In 1865, he was succeeded by Leopold II. Holland is now (1882) ruled by William III., who ascended the throne in 1849.

Later changes.

* "The gloom produced by the assassination of William of Orange was tragical. Never in human history was a more poignant and universal sorrow for the death of any individual. The despair was, for a brief season, absolute; but it was soon succeeded by more lofty sentiments. It seemed, after they had laid their hero in the tomb, as though his spirit still hovered above the nation which he had loved so well, and was inspiring it with a portion of his own energy and wisdom."—*Motley's United Netherlands.*

SECTION IV.

SWITZERLAND.

29. The chief events in the history of Switzerland, after the establishment of its independence in 1499, were those connected with the changes in religion brought about by the celebrated Protestant preacher Zwin'gli, an associate of Luther and Melanchthon. The cantons were soon involved in a civil war on account of religious dissensions. Zurich, in 1523, adopted the opinions of Zwingli, and was followed by Berne, and other cantons in the north; while the forest cantons remained attached to the Catholic Church. In a battle fought in 1531, the latter were victorious, and Zwingli was slain. Geneva was the residence of John Calvin, one of the most noted of the Protestant divines; and from his preaching spread the doctrines which afterward characterized the Puritans of England, and the people of Scotland. The death of Calvin occurred in 1564.

Zwingli.

Religious wars.

Calvin.

30. The neutrality of Switzerland was preserved during the Thirty Years' War; and at its close, the peace of Westphalia secured the independence of the Confederacy, by acknowledging it as a separate state. At this period, the Swiss were among the best soldiers in Europe, and were employed in immense numbers by foreign states. In 1798, the French armies overran Switzerland; and, in 1802, Napoleon, as First Consul, annexed three of the cantons to France, and formed of the others a confederation dependent upon it. The Congress of Vienna restored the cantons, and re-established the republic, consisting of twenty-two cantons (1815). The new constitution, adopted by the federal diet in the same year, was ratified by the great powers, and the perpetual independence of the Confederation was declared. The last revision of this constitution was adopted in 1874.

Later history.

SECTION V.

ITALY.

31. Italy continued to be divided into a number of small states until the establishment of the Kingdom of Italy (1861). Among these states the Duchy of Sav'oy became, in the latter period of the Middle Ages, a power of considerable importance. During the wars of Louis XIV. of France, it took sides with the allies, and was rewarded, by the treaty of Utrecht, with the island of Sicily and other territories. The Kingdom of Sardinia originated in a treaty made between Savoy and Austria (1720), by which Sicily was exchanged for the island of Sardinia, and the Duke of Savoy was acknowledged king. By Napoleon it was stripped of much of its territory, which was restored by the Congress of Vienna, who also annexed to it the ancient republic of Genoa.

Savoy.

Sardinia.

32. Charles Albert was a vigorous monarch of Sardinia; and, during his reign (1831–49), many reforms were introduced into the government, in compliance with the demands for a more liberal policy, by the people. At the revolutionary period of 1848, the king announced a new constitution, which was hailed with much satisfaction. An insurrection of the Austrian states of Italy broke out, and the king placed himself at the head of the Italian forces. Being disastrously defeated, he was compelled to abdicate in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel (1849), during whose reign many changes occurred in Italy. Joseph Gar-i-bal'di, the famous Italian patriot, landing in Sicily, proclaimed himself dictator for Victor Emanuel. After taking Palermo by storm, and defeating the army of the King of Naples, he invaded the peninsula, and continuing in his victorious career, compelled the king (Francis II.) to flee (1860).

Charles Albert.

Victor Emanuel.

Garibaldi.

33. Victor Emanuel afterward entered Naples, and was acknowledged king. Lombardy had been wrested the year before from Austria, through the aid of the French emperor, Napoleon III., who gained the splendid victories of Magenta and Solferino over the Austrian forces. As a result of the successful insurrection of 1860, the states of Italy, except Venetia and a part of the Papal territories, were consolidated into the Kingdom of Italy; and Victor Emanuel, the former king of Sardinia, was placed on the throne by the Italian Parliament. He was soon afterward recognized as king of Italy by France and England, and fixed his capital at Florence (1861). After the war of 1867, Venetia was given up by Austria, and subsequently Garibaldi made an attack on the Papal territory, but his forces were repulsed by the French. After the Franco-German war, so disastrous to France, the French forces were withdrawn, and the Italian army soon afterward entered Rome, which the Italian Parliament proclaimed the capital of the Kingdom of Italy (1870). Victor Emanuel made his formal entry into the city the next year. On his death, in 1878, this king was succeeded by his son, Humbert I., who still reigns (1882).

Kingdom of Italy.

Rome.

Humbert I.

SECTION VI.

SPAIN.

34. Charles V. of Germany, previous to his election as emperor, inherited the throne of Spain, being the grandson of Isabella of Castile. His reign (Don Carlos I.), which commenced at the death of Ferdinand (1516), lasted forty years; but is chiefly occupied with the general affairs of Europe. Cardinal Ximenes (*ze-me'neez*), one of the most celebrated personages of his age, administered

Ximenes.

the government till 1517, with great vigor and ability. Charles was succeeded, on his abdication, by Philip II. (1556), who thus became one of the greatest potentates on earth, being ruler over Spain, the Netherlands, Sicily, Naples, and other parts of Italy, besides of such parts of the New World as had been added to the dominions of Spain by the discoveries of Columbus and that navigator's successors.

Philip II.

35. Philip's schemes were principally actuated by bigotry,

and nearly all ended in utter failure; so that, at his death (1598), he left the country despoiled of some of its best possessions, impoverished by ruinous wars, and greatly lowered in the respect of foreign nations. His successor (Philip III.) still further weakened the kingdom by the expulsion of the Moors (1610), who had been permitted by Ferdinand to remain in the country, on condition of their accepting

Condition of Spain.

Moors.

Christianity. This measure of Philip III., which was based on the charge of hypocrisy in the professed conversion of the Moors, deprived Spain of 500,000 of its most useful population.

36. The reign of Philip IV. (1621–65) was noted for the loss of Portugal, which had been annexed to Spain during the reign of Philip II. (1580). It now re-established its independence as a separate kingdom under the Duke of Bra-gan'za (1640). Philip IV. made the most strenuous exertions to recover the lost province, and his failure is said to have partly occasioned his death. During the next reign (Charles II., 1665–1700), Spain was left, by the imbecility of its government, a prey to the other nations of Europe, by whom it was despoiled of many of its best possessions. The placing of Philip V. upon the throne, by his grandfather, Louis XIV., led to the War of the Spanish Succession (see page 560.)

Portugal.

Later events.

37. The attempts of the Emperor Napoleon I. to obtain the control of Spain, occasioned the Peninsular War, the chief events of which have already been related. The conclusion of peace, in 1814, restored Ferdinand VII. to the throne, who dissolved the *Cortes*, or Parliament, and established an absolute rule. A revolution which broke out in 1820, compelled him to restore the free constitution formed in 1812, and placed him under restraint. Louis XVIII. of France, however, sending an army into Spain, released him, and restored his authority. The War of Spanish Independence in America, which broke out in 1810, by the revolt of New Grena'da and Venezue'la, ended in 1825, the American colonies, one by one, having achieved their independence.*

Other events.

American colonies.

* Spain, once the richest nation in the world, from her American and other conquests, had by this time lost the whole of her vast foreign dominions, except Cuba and Porto Rico in the west, and the Philippine Islands in the east, with a few unimportant possessions.

38. Isabella II. was proclaimed queen on the death of Ferdinand, her father, in 1833, but was opposed by Don Carlos, her uncle, who claimed the throne on the ground that the law of succession excluded females. A war of four years ensued; and finally Great Britain sent an army in aid of Isabella, whereupon Don Carlos, hopeless of success, fled to France. Isabella's rule gave great dissatisfaction, and in 1868, after a successful insurrection, she was obliged to flee, seeking a refuge in France. A provisional government was then organized, under Generals Serrano and Prim, followed by a regency with Serrano at its head. In 1871, Duke Aosta, second son of Victor Emanuel, became king by election of the Cortes, with the title of Amade'us I.; but, after a short and stormy reign, he abdicated (1873); and a republic was proclaimed. Civil war in various parts of Spain followed, until Alfonso, son of Isabella II., who had been proclaimed king in Madrid and acknowledged by some of the armies, landed in Spain; and the Carlist insurrectionists* were overthrown (1876). This event placed Alfonso XII. firmly on the Spanish throne, which he still occupies (1882).

Isabella II.

Revolution.

Alfonso.

SECTION VII.

PORTUGAL.

39. It was during the reign of Emanuel, surnamed the *Fortunate* (1495–1521), that Vasco da Gama made his successful voyage to India, by way of the Cape of Good Hope (1497). This was soon followed by the accidental discovery of Brazil, by Cabral (1500), in a voyage to India, thus giving that extensive and

Maritime enterprises.

* These were the supporters of the claims of Don Carlos, a grandson of Isabella's uncle, who had previously contended for the throne.

fertile region to the Portuguese. Important voyages were made to this region by Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian navigator in the Portuguese service (1501 and 1504). In the same reign the Portuguese established their authority in India, making many conquests and founding several colonies. Among their conquests were Ceylon (1505) and Malacca (1511). Japan was discovered a few years later (1542).*

Sebastian III.

40. An unfortunate expedition of Sebastian III. to Morocco (1578), from which he never returned, left Portugal without a sovereign, and occasioned disorder and anarchy,—the people constantly looking for the return of their king, of whose fate no tidings were ever received. Philip II. of Spain, taking advantage of these circumstances, seized upon the country (1580); and for sixty years it was held in subjection to the Spanish crown. During this period, it suffered much from the oppressive exactions of its conquerors, being obliged to share in the taxation occasioned by the long and expensive wars waged by the Spanish monarchs. At last, it was set free by a revolution; and John IV., Duke of Braganza, ascended the throne (1640). Long wars followed with Spain, which did not acknowledge the independence of Portugal till 1668.

Spanish rule.

John IV.

State of the nation.

41. During the next century, Portugal remained in a state of inglorious stagnation, being steeped in ignorance and bigotry; and, after being one of the greatest maritime nations of the world, was content to become a kind of commercial dependent of Great Britain. Under the reign of Joseph I. (1750–77), the genius and

* "Intercourse with the Chinese was commenced in the year 1518, when an embassy sent to their empire had the good fortune to drive off a pirate from the shores, and in consequence was received with favor, and rewarded with the town of Macao as a settlement. Japan was discovered in 1542, by the accidental drifting of a vessel to its shores. The Portuguese soon acquired an ascendency over the petty princes who then governed the islands, and laid the foundations of a profitable commerce."—*Yeats's Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce.*

enterprise of his great minister, Don Carvalho (*kar-val'yo*) infused a temporary vigor in the government; but this was checked by the accession of his daughter Maria, who permitted the nobles and clergy to resume their destructive influence. Her insanity led to the appointment of her eldest son, John VI., as regent (1792).

Don Carvalho.

42. The invasion of Portugal by the French, under Marshal Junot, induced John to abandon Portugal and retire to Brazil (1807), where he remained until 1821, although by the death of his mother he had been acknowledged king in 1816. His return was occasioned by the breaking out of a revolution in Portugal, which had for its object the establishment of a government securing the rights of the people. John accepted the new constitution, and acknowledged the independence of Brazil, the throne of the latter country being occupied by his son, Dom Pedro (1825), with the title of emperor.

French invasion.

Revolution.

43. On the death of John VI. (1826), his son Dom Pedro, preferring the throne of Brazil, resigned that of Portugal in favor of his daughter Maria da Gloria; but her uncle Dom Miguel (*me-ghel'*), who had previously opposed the reforms in the government, laid claim to the throne, and obtained from the Cortes an acknowledgment of his right (1828). This led to a dreadful condition of anarchy for a time, which was terminated by Dom Pedro, with the aid of the British, Dom Miguel being compelled to submit (1834). In that year Maria II. commenced her reign, which was terminated by her death (1853), when her son Pedro V. succeeded under the regency of his father. This king's reign was short but meritorious; and, on his death (1861), his brother Louis I. ascended the throne, under whom Portugal has made a steady advancement. Important internal improvements have been completed, slavery has been abolished in the colonies, and many wise and beneficent measures carried into effect.

Dom Pedro.

Later history.

SECTION VIII.

Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.

44. These three countries in the Middle Ages were inhabited by a Scandinavian people, the descendants of the Goths and other barbarous races. Each was governed by its own princes till the beginning of the 14th century, when Norway was united with Sweden. The three countries were formed into one kingdom, under the rule of Margaret, Queen of Denmark, in the latter part of the same century (1397). This union, however, was neither effectual nor permanent; but the kings of Denmark continued to claim and exercise some sway over these countries till 1523, when Sweden was freed from the tyranny of Christian II. of Denmark, by the patriotic exertions of the renowned Gustavus Vasa.

Early history.

Sweden.

45. This illustrious man was afterward elected king of Sweden, and, by his wise and beneficent measures, established the prosperity of the kingdom, and gave to this semi-barbarous state an honorable place among the civilized monarchies of Europe. His reign of thirty-seven years (1523–1560) was also signalized by the establishment of Protestantism. The next important reign was that of the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, the hero of Lutzen. His death, in 1632, would have been an irreparable disaster to his country but for the virtues and talents of his minister Ox'en-stiern (*-stern*), who administered the government during the minority of Christina (*kris-te'nah*), daughter of Gustavus.

Gustavus Vasa.

Gustavus Adolphus.

46. Charles XI., during his long reign (1660–1697), succeeded in enlarging the Swedish territories, and obtained from the diet a decree giving to him absolute power. His reign was exceedingly prosperous, and the

Charles XI.

internal condition of the kingdom was much improved. Charles XII., called sometimes the "Madman of the North," succeeded. His passion for conquest and military glory plunged his country into many miseries and misfortunes. A coalition formed against him by Denmark, Poland, and Russia led to the Northern War, in which Charles gained several brilliant victories over the Danes and Russians; and having succeeded in dethroning the king of Poland, placed in his stead Stanislas (1704).

Charles XII.

47. A severe contest with the czar of Russia followed, and Charles invaded that country with a large army, which, after suffering the most dreadful hardships from cold and hunger, was finally defeated at Pol-ta'va (1709). Charles took refuge in Turkey, and succeeded in persuading the Turkish emperor to declare war against Russia; but he afterward quarrelled with the emperor, and was compelled, after remaining more than five years in Turkey, to flee. He returned to Sweden in 1714, and still continued to carry out his ambitious designs till his death, which occurred during the siege of a town in Norway (1718).

Poltava.

Death of Charles.

48. The vacillating policy of Gustavus IV., during the Napoleonic wars, led to the loss of Bothnia and Finland; and, in 1809, he was obliged to abdicate in favor of his uncle, Charles XIII. This king being without heirs, Ber-na-dotte', one of Napoleon's marshals, was raised to the rank of Crown Prince (1810), and became virtually the king. With the title of Charles XIV., he formally ascended the throne of Norway and Sweden in 1818, the two countries having been united in 1815. His reign, which was characterized by vigor and moderation, lasted until 1844, and was followed by that of his son Oscar, who ruled till 1859, when he was succeeded by his grandson Charles XV., who died in 1872. The reigning monarch is Oscar II., the brother of Charles (1882).

Bernadotte.

Later history.

49. Norway continued to be united to Denmark until 1814, when, by the treaty of Kiel (*keel*), the allied powers compelled the latter to resign her possession of Norway to Sweden. The union of the two countries was afterward confirmed by the Congress of Vienna. The people of Norway made some resistance to this arrangement; but the country being invaded by an army under Bernadotte, they were reduced to submission. The constitutional privileges of the nation have, however, been retained; and the condition of the country, under the Bernadotte dynasty, has been one of peace and prosperity.

Norway.

DENMARK.

50. After the separation of Sweden and Denmark (1523), the latter was governed by Frederick I., who introduced the Lutheran religion into his dominions. During the next reign, Schles'wig and Hol'stein were annexed to the Danish territories. Under Christian IV. Denmark took an active part in the Thirty Years' War; b defeat and disaster were the consequence, and Christian w obliged to submit to very humiliating conditions of pe (1629). During the Napoleonic wars, Great Britain, cla ing the right to search foreign vessels, too Danish frigate that had made resistance. led to a league with Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, again naval power of Great Britain. Nelson, however, attacke destroyed the Danish fleet in the harbor of Copenhage thus paralyzed the naval power of the confederacy The British again destroyed the Danish fleet in 1807, sequence of a threatened alliance with France. By th of Vienna, Denmark received the duchy of Lau (1815).

Chief events.

British war.

51. In 1848, a revolt occurred in Schleswig and to produce a separation of the duchies from t it was subdued, through assistance fr

Austria. In 1864, Prussia, in alliance with Austria, compelled Denmark to give up these territories, and thus confined her sway to the peninsula and the adjacent islands. The marriage, in 1863, of the English Prince of Wales to Alexandra, daughter of the Danish king, Christian IX., a third time allied Denmark to Great Britain. Christian is still the reigning monarch (1882).

Alexandra.

SECTION IX.

POLAND.

52. Poland was created into a kingdom, and became an extensive and powerful monarchy, during the Middle Ages. In the latter part of the fourteenth century occurred its first union with Lith-u-a'ni-a, a large district extending to the Nie'men and Dnieper rivers. Soon after this, successful wars were waged with the Teutonic Knights, which resulted in uniting the Prussian provinces with Poland (1462). During the reign of Sigismund I. (1506–1548), a war was carried on with the Russians, who thus acquired Smolensk. Through the wise and beneficent measures of this sovereign, Poland was much improved, and reached a very high degree of greatness and splendor.

Early history.

53. In the next reign (Sigismund II.), occurred the final union of Poland and Lithuania (1569); and the Protestant doctrines took a firm hold of the higher classes. At the close of this reign (1572), the monarchy was made elective; and the first king chosen was Henry of Valois, afterward Henry III. of France. This change in the constitution of the kingdom was very injurious to its interests, since it fomented faction and gave rise to repeated civil wars. The next century was chiefly occupied in wars with

Changes.

the two great northern powers, Sweden and Russia. During the reign of John Cas'i-mir (1648–68), a Swedish army overran Poland, took War'saw and Cra'cōw, and compelled the king to flee. The Poles, however, made a vigorous effort to preserve their independence, and, having expelled the Swedes, restored their sovereign to his throne.

Wars.

54. The reign of John Sobieski is one of the most brilliant in Polish history. He was a great warrior, and saved his country from the Cossacks and the Turks. His defeat of the latter near Vienna, in 1683, has already been referred to. The constant dissensions and turbulence of the Polish nobles, however, frustrated all his efforts to improve and strengthen the kingdom, and prepared the way for its final dismemberment and ruin. Under the last king, Stanislas Augustus Po-ni-a-tow'ski (*-tov'ske*), occurred the First Partition (1772), by which Austria, Russia, and Prussia divided most of its dominions among themselves, leaving to the Polish king only a nominal authority over those remaining to him. Twenty years later, the war with the Russians again broke out; but they were defeated by the Poles, under their renowned leader Prince Poniatowski, nephew of Stanislas, in several engagements, notwithstanding which Stanislas submitted to the Second Partition, by which the Polish territories were still further diminished (1793).

Sobieski.

Stanislas.

Poniatowski.

55. The next year the Poles made an ineffectual effort to regain their lost liberties, under that noble and illustrious patriot Thad'de-us Kos-ci-us'ko, who had so generously lent his sword to the cause of American freedom, in the war of the Revolution. At first victorious, the brave Poles were soon obliged to succumb to the overwhelming masses of the Russians, commanded by the fierce and relentless Suvaroff; and Kosciusko was wounded and made a prisoner (1794). Warsaw was soon after taken by storm, and the last relic of Polish independence was destroyed

Kosciusko.

by the Third Partition (1795). Stanislas died a broken-hearted exile in St. Petersburg (1798). Kosciusko, kept for some time a captive at St. Petersburg, was afterward released; and for many years wandered in America, France, and Switzerland. In the last-named country he died, from the effects of a fall from his horse (1817).

56. The wars waged by Napoleon I. against the enemies of Poland excited new hopes in the people of regaining their independence; but these were destroyed by the Congress of Vienna, who gave some of the Polish territories to Prussia and Austria, and formed of the remainder the kingdom of Poland, under the control of the czar. After an unsuccessful insurrection of the Poles in 1830, this kingdom was incorporated with the Russian Empire. Another insurrection took place in 1863; but it was soon crushed by the overwhelming force of the Russian Government, and the severest punishments were inflicted upon tens of thousands of the unfortunate insurgents.

Russian control.

SECTION X.

RUSSIA.

57. The ancestors of the Russians were the Slavs, who at an early period formed settlements near the sources of the Dnieper, Dniester, and Don rivers, and the Baltic Sea. Of these Novgorod′ and Kiev (*ke-ev′*) were the chief. The size and influence of the former, while it was a member of the Hanseatic League in the thirteenth century, were so great, that it was called the Mighty Novgorod. It was the metropolis of one of the most extensive of the Russian states, occupying a vast tract that stretched from the Baltic to the White Sea.

Early history.

Novgorod.

58. For several centuries Russia was overrun by the Mongols, from whom it was emancipated by Ivan (*e-van'*) III., one of the greatest of its monarchs, who, during his reign of nearly half a century (1462–1505), did very much to improve and elevate the people. He had married a niece of Constantine Palæologus, and endeavored to introduce into his country the laws, institutions, and arts of civilization peculiar to the Greek Empire. During this and the two succeeding reigns, the petty principalities were abolished, and Russia assumed the character of a consolidated empire (1584). A short time previous to this, the conquest of Siberia had been commenced; and, in 1664, Ir-koutsk' was founded.

Ivan III.

Siberia.

59. Russia owes its greatness as a European power to the talents and energy of Peter the Great, (1682–1725) who was one of the most extraordinary personages described in history. With an inflexible will, he was dismayed by no difficulty and appalled by no danger. With the spirit of an enlightened patriot, he resolved to introduce among his people the useful arts, the civilized customs, and the beneficent institutions which he saw prevailing in other countries of Europe. To accomplish this, he visited England, Holland, and other countries; and even engaged himself as a common mechanic, to obtain a knowledge of the arts which he desired to teach his people (1697–8). In 1703, the capital was removed from Moscow to his new city, St. Petersburg.

Peter the Great.

PETER THE GREAT.

60. Previous to this, the war with Charles XII. of Sweden *broke out*; and Peter was defeated with great loss in the

battle of Narva (1700). Profiting by this experience, the Russian monarch re-organized his army; and when Charles invaded Russia, in 1707, he was permitted to penetrate farther and farther into those dreary regions of frost and famine, till, with a small and half-famished remnant of his great army, he was surrounded at Poltava, and entirely defeated (1709). Two years later, Peter allowed the Russian army to be surrounded by the Turks near the Pruth (*proot*) River; and was saved from a terrible disaster by an artifice of the Empress Catharine, who bought off the vizier with her jewels. Peter died in 1725.

Defeat of Charles XII.

Turks.

CATHARINE I.

61. Catharine I., the widow of the great czar, succeeded him, ruling for two years. She had originally been a peasant girl; but, by her prudence, intelligence, and enterprise, she did much to facilitate the beneficent objects of her distinguished husband. Prince Men'shi-koff, the chief minister of Peter, had also risen from a very humble station. During the reign of Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine, Russia became a prominent nation and took a distinguished part in the Seven Years' War (1741–62).

Catharine I.

Elizabeth.

62. The profligate empress Catharine II. (1762–96) had the celebrated Po-tem'kin for her minister and favorite. Wars were waged with Turkey and Poland, and the Crimea was wrested from the former in 1784. The Turks were afterwards severely defeated by the famous General Suvaroff, and were thus compelled to submit to further loss of territory (1792). This general also distin-

Catharine II.

guished himself during the next reign (Paul) in the wars waged against Napoleon. Paul was assassinated in 1801, and was succeeded by Alexander I., who entered into the several coalitions formed against Napoleon. This monarch commenced his reign with liberal ideas and a desire to effect reforms, but he became arbitrary and misanthropic, and ruled as an absolute despot till his death in 1825. He was succeeded by his brother Nicholas.

Paul.

Alexander I.

63. The reign of Nicholas I., who was also a stern despot, is noted for the insurrection in Poland (1830), and the cruel punishments inflicted upon the unfortunate Poles by the remorseless emperor. The crushing out of the Hungarian insurrection by the interference of Russia, and the Crimean war (1853–5), were also events of this reign. Nicholas died while the latter was in progress, and was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. (1855). The next year, the treaty of Paris was concluded, by which Russia was obliged to resign her claims to the Danubian principalities, and to the unrestricted navigation of the Black Sea.

Nicholas.

Alexander II.

64. Alexander II. commenced his reign with a series of liberal reforms, the greatest of which was the emancipation of the serfs by a decree issued in 1861, by means of which fourteen millions of people were released from bondage, and made free citizens. The defeat of the celebrated leader Scha'myl, who had organized an independent government over the mountain tribes of the Caucasus, took place in 1859. An insurrection in Poland was suppressed in 1864, and the people were again treated with extreme rigor. Since 1865 Russia has made extensive conquests in central Asia, successively bringing under her sway the rich and fertile khanates of Turkistan (*toor-kis-tan'*). Khiva, one of the most important of these, was conquered in 1875.

Later history.

65. In 1875–6 insurrections broke out in the Christian provinces of Bos'nia, Servia, Bulgaria, and others; and the

atrocities committed by the Turkish soldiery in suppressing them caused a thrill of horror throughout the civilized world.* Russia took occasion to interfere in behalf of the religious freedom of the provinces, and demanded guarantees of the Turkish Government which the latter refused to grant. War accordingly ensued, during which the Russian armies, having invaded the Ottoman dominions both in Europe and Asia, gained several important victories. This war was closed by the treaty of Berlin (1878), with the result stated in the history of Turkey (see page 346). The commotions excited by the extreme revolutionary party called Nihilists have for some years disturbed the nation; and several attempts were made on the czar's life, the last of which was successful, Alexander being assassinated in St. Petersburg (1881). He was succeeded by his son Alexander III, the present czar (1882).

Eastern war.

Nihilists.

SECTION XI.

TURKEY.

66. Mohammed II., the conqueror of Constantinople, greatly enlarged the Turkish territories; and his son Bajazet II. (1481–1512) extended his dominions still further, adding a part of the region north of the Black Sea, together with portions of Italy and Austria. His

Conquests.

* "These atrocities excited universal astonishment and horror when their full extent had been made known. Mr. W. E. Gladstone, late premier of the British cabinet, was prompted by them to write a pamphlet full of burning denunciation of the administration in power in Great Britain [Earl of Beaconsfield's], for its attempt to palliate the enormity of the offenses and its toleration of the Turkish Government, which, knowing that they had been committed, had not taken efficient measures to bring the perpetrators of them to justice. In this pamphlet he pronounced them 'the basest and blackest outrages upon record within the present century, if not within the memory of man,' and characterized them as crimes and outrages so vast in scale as to exceed all modern example, and so unutterably vile as well as fierce in character, that it pains the power of heart to conceive, and of tongue and pen adequately to describe them."—*A. J. Schem's War in the East.*

successor, Selim I. (1512–20), made conquest of Syria, Egypt, and other countries, and laid the foundation of the Turkish naval power, which so long disputed the empire of the Mediterranean with the fleets of Venice. The greatest power and splendor were, however, attained by the Ottoman Empire during the reign of Solyman, surnamed the *Magnificent* (1520–66).

Solyman.

67. This great monarch reduced the powerful Danubian fortresses of Belgrade (1521), wrested the island of Rhodes from its persevering and valiant defenders, the Knights of St. John (1522), and, having invaded Hungary and taken Buda (1529), marched to Vienna, which he besieged for a long time, but was repulsed with great loss (1529). A second attempt, in 1532, was equally unsuccessful. He also carried on a successful war with the Shah (emperor) of Persia; and his fleets triumphantly swept the Mediterranean from the Strait of Gibraltar to the Levant. One of his last undertakings was an unsuccessful attack on the island of Malta, which the Emperor Charles V. had given to the Knights of St. John, after their expulsion from Rhodes (1565).

Selim II.

68. During the reign of Selim II. (1566–74), the German emperor agreed to pay an annual tribute to the Turks for their surrender of Hungary. The attempt to take Astrachan′, a city on the Volga, preliminary to the construction of a canal between the Don and Volga rivers —a scheme projected by the Turkish emperor for commercial purposes—aroused the hostility of the Russians, a people until that time little known in southern Europe. Thus were commenced those fierce wars, which for centuries have been waged by these neighboring empires. During the reign of Selim, the fleets of Turkey received a check by the great naval defeat sustained at Lepanto, in Greece, in an action with Don John of Austria (1571).

69. The subsequent reigns, for more than a century, present only a continuous series of contests with Germany,

Poland, and Russia, in which the Ottoman power succeeded in extending its dominions from the Danube to the Tigris, and from the southern limits of Egypt to the falls of the Dnieper River. It sustained, however, several defeats, of which that at Vienna by the Poles under their king, John Sobieski, was the most memorable (1683);* and Prince Eugene, while in the imperial service, gained one of his greatest victories over the Turks at Zenta, a city in Hungary (1697). The Turks abandoned all their Hungarian possessions in the treaty which followed (1699). The assistance given to Charles XII., after the battle of Poltava, involved the Turks in a war with Peter the Great, to whom it would have proved a great disaster, had he not been rescued by the skillful artifice of the Empress Catharine. A short time after this, the Morea (southern part of Greece) was taken from the Venetians (1714).

Wars.

Defeats.

Morea.

70. Contests with Russia take up the largest part of its subsequent history. During a six years' war (1768–74), the Russians overran the Crimea, which they succeeded in retaining, notwithstanding the most desperate efforts of the Turks to regain it. While Catharine II. of Russia was on the throne, the Turks were assailed by the combined power of Russia and Austria, the forces of the former being commanded by Marshal Suvaroff, the most famous of Russian generals, and particularly noted for his resolution and relentless ferocity. Peace was concluded between Russia and Turkey in 1792.

Wars with Russia.

* "Never was there a more complete owerthrow. It was like the explosion of a mine; it was so sudden. After the battle, the Elector of Bavaria, and many others of the princes, fell on my neck and kissed me in the fullness of their joy. The generals hoisted me on their shoulders and carried me through their ranks. Wherever I went, 'Long live Sobieski!' 'Sobieski forever!' 'Huzza!' sounded on all sides. Mothers and children ran to touch me; old men covered my hands with kisses; and those who could not get through the crowd, waved their hats or handkerchiefs, shouting with one voice, 'God save thee, Sobieski!' 'Welcome, Sobieski!' 'Huzza!'"—*Letter of Sobieski to his Wife.*

71. The conquest of Egypt and the invasion of Syria by Napoleon have already been referred to. By the aid of the British, the lost territories were regained. One of the most interesting events since that time, was the successful insurrection of the Greeks, whose independence was secured by the battle of Navarino (1827). The wars waged with the rebellious Pacha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali (*ma'hem-et ah'le*), still further reduced the strength of the empire. This contest was terminated in 1841, by the surrender of the government of Egypt to Mehemet Ali, he being made an hereditary ruler. One of his successors, Ismail (*is-mah-eel'*) Pasha, obtained from the sultan in 1867 the hereditary title of *khedive* (viceroy).

Later events.

72. Russia has repeatedly taken advantage of the weakness of the Ottoman Empire to attempt its spoliation. In the Crimean War Turkey was successfully aided by Great Britain and France in opposing the schemes of conquest of Nicholas; and by the treaty of Paris it regained a portion of territory north of the Danube. In the Eastern War of 1877–8, the Turkish forces were unsuccessful in opposing the Russian armies; and the empire suffered a great loss of territory by the Treaty of Berlin, negotiated under the influence and direction of the leading powers of Europe, a congress of whose representatives met in that city. By this treaty Turkey was obliged to consent to the formation of the principalities of Bulgaria and Servia, with the partial independence of East Rume'lia, Bos'nia, and Herzegovi'na, the government of the last two to be administered by Austria-Hungary. In 1859 the Turkish dependencies Moldavia and Wallachia were united, and a principality formed from them, to which the name of Roumania was given. The independence of this state was acknowledged by the sultan of Turkey in 1861. Roumania subsequently assumed the rank and dignity of a kingdom *(1881)*.

Russian attacks.

Eastern War.

Resu t.

SECTION XII.

GREECE.

73. From the capture of Constantinople (1453) until a recent date, Greece was under the Mohammedan yoke, which was made galling and oppressive to the last degree by the brutal and fanatical Turks. In 1820, the Greeks determined to make a struggle for their independence; and Mav-ro-cor-da'to was proclaimed president. His most celebrated compeer in the dreadful contest that ensued was Marco Bozzaris (*bot'sah-ris*), called, sometimes, the "Leonidas of Modern Greece." This heroic chief perished in a night-attack upon the Turkish camp (1823), near Missolonghi, one of the chief centers of the insurrection. This place also derives a mournful interest from the death of Lord Byron, who died there of a fever, occasioned by his earnest efforts in behalf of Greece (1824).

Turkish rule.

War for independence.

74. The fall of this place, after a long siege, in which its brave defenders suffered the most dreadful hardships from famine, and which was closed by their captivity, aroused the sympathy of Europe; and England, France, and Russia formed a league to assist the brave Greeks in their unequal contest. The combined fleets of the allies entirely destroyed the Turkish and Egyptian fleets in the harbor of Navarino (October 20, 1827). After this victory, Count Capo d'Istria, a native of the island of Corfu, was formally installed as President of Greece. Its independence was formally acknowledged by the Turkish sultan in 1829.

European aid.

Navarino.

75. Made a separate kingdom by the allied powers, its first king was Otho, a Bavarian prince (1832). His reign was somewhat troubled, by the discontent of his subjects with his German officials and foreign troops, and by Russian intrigues for the purpose of involving the

Otho.

little kingdom in the insurrections of the neighboring provinces against Turkey. A successful revolution broke out in Athens in 1862; and Otho having abdicated, was succeeded the following year by Prince George of Denmark, with the title of George I., King of the Hellenes.

George I.

SECTION XIII.

Progress of Civilization in Modern Europe.

76. Modern history commences at the epoch at which the dawn of intelligence broke upon Europe. In the latter part of the fifteenth century the civilization of the Greek Empire had disappeared before the conquering arms of the rude and ferocious Ottomans, and the western nations, emerging from the night of mediæval ignorance, began to glow with the first beams of that intellectual and social illumination to which they have attained. Literature, science, and art, at this auspicious era, sprang into active life; and the human mind, shaking off the chains of feudal barbarism, began its career of activity and freedom.

Modern epoch.

77. After the destruction of the feudal system, the masses were gradually released from the degrading condition of serfdom, and acquired a share in the establishment of civil and political institutions. Science soon began its wonderful reformation. The comforts and conveniences of life were constantly increased; the modes of warfare were revolutionized by the use of firearms;* the mariner's compass made ocean navigation possible, and the application of steam, at a later period, facilitated it; while

Changes.

* The process of making *granulated* gunpowder was invented by *Schwartz* in 1320, and immediately thereafter almost every state commenced the use of cannon of small size. In 1346, Edward III. used them at Crecy Plated armor could then no *longer* protect the feudal tyrant against the weapon of the oppressed peasant.

extended commerce gave an impulse to exploration and discovery. The invention of printing gave to the modern world the intellectual riches of the ancients, and literature commenced its magnificent career. The later application of electricity to the telegraph has brought the ends of the earth into rapid communication with each other.

78. The maritime enterprises of the Portuguese in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries gave them great commercial influence, especially in the trade of the East Indies; but they found at a later period a successful rival in the Dutch. The celebrated Dutch East India Company was chartered in 1602, and through it the rival cities of the Netherlands united their interests and efforts.* Its center was at Batavia, called the "Pearl of the East," which at the close of the seventh century had reached a population of 160,000. The conflicts between the Dutch and the Portuguese resulted in the supremacy of the former, whose colonies soon became numerous and important. The French also established a company in the East India trade, besides which there was a Danish East India Company in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The English company, to which reference has already been made, acquired its greatest power in the eighteenth century. Companies were also organized for the West India trade.

Maritime enterprise.

79. Spain and Portugal for more than a century enjoyed a monopoly of the treasure and merchandise obtained from India and the New World. The Spanish colonies in Central and South America and in the West Indies, and the Portuguese settlements in Brazil, were a source of vast wealth; but by folly, indolence, bigotry, and

Colonies.

* "The naval and military power of the Dutch East India Company became at last enormous. Of ships of war carrying from twenty to sixty guns, they had, when powerful, one hundred and fifty, besides fifty smaller vessels, and an army of corresponding magnitude. The States General had from time to time to subsidize the Company in order to enable the directors to carry on their wars."—*Yeats's Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce.*

a thirst for gold and silver, the best fruits of these possessions were lost; and the maritime influence and glory of the Peninsula, gained in the sixteenth century, was swept away in the next by Dutch enterprise and vigor. Holland, in its turn, yielded to English ascendency at a later period.

Improvements.

80. The wonderful commercial revival of the sixteenth century brought many changes—many new elements characteristic of modern civilization. Communication and correspondence became by degrees more easy and rapid, by the construction of canals and military roads; systems of commercial credit and exchange were established, as at Antwerp, London, and Amsterdam; great fairs for trading purposes were held at different places, particularly at Brunswick and Leipsic;* and banks, insurance companies, and post-offices were founded in large numbers.

Industrial arts.

81. Progress in the industrial arts was greatly stimulated by this increased commercial activity. In these very great progress has been made in all civilized countries during the last three centuries. This is seen in the improvements made in agriculture, in every kind of manufacturing industry, in mining, in the invention and use of labor-saving machinery,—particularly in that for the making of textile fabrics. The processes of spinning and weaving were at first simple, crude, and tedious, the instruments used being the spindle and distaff, and then the spinning-wheel; while weaving was dependent on the loom and shuttle, and embroidery was executed by hand.

82. With these simple means, however, weaving had reached, before the sixteenth century, a high degree of perfection, especially in Flanders, France, and Italy, and in the cities of Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Valenciennes (*vah-long-*

* In more recent times such fairs have been held in various parts of the world, and many are still maintained. Nizhni Novgorod, on the Volga River, is still the center of a vast trade; and annual fairs are now held there, at some of which as many as 200,000 traders are gathered. The fairs at Leipsic, Brunswick, and Frankfort are still very large and important.

se-en'), Ar'ras, Genoa, and Florence. Tapestry-weaving displayed the highest perfection of artistic excellence; and vast sums were given for the rich products of this skill. The silk velvets of Genoa were especially esteemed. Stocking-knitting was introduced in the first part of the sixteenth century;* and the invention of lace-knitting is ascribed to a Saxon matron in the same century. The stocking-loom was also invented about the same time. Cotton fabrics were made in Italy and Spain in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The invention of the Jacquard loom in 1801, by a silk-weaver of Lyons, introduced an important improvement in silk manufacture.†

Weaving and knitting.

83. In the fine arts,—music, painting, and sculpture,—the achievements of modern times show the highest gifts of genius as well as perfection of skill. In music this is particularly the case, for the progress made in the last three centuries exceeds that of every other period in history. This is seen not only in the works of eminent composers, but in the invention of musical instruments, and in the advancement of music as a science. New forms of musical composition, as the oratorio and the opera, have sprung into existence during this period. The composers of great musical genius are very numerous, particularly those of Germany and Italy. Only a few can be referred to.

Fine arts.

Music.

84. Among German composers may be mentioned:

Bach,‡ John Sebastian (1685–1750), deemed by some the greatest musician that ever lived.

Gluck (1714–1787), the composer of many great operas.

* Previous to the invention of close knitting, about 1517, in Spain, or as some contend in Scotland, coverings for the legs were made of woven cloth or leather. The greater convenience of knit hose was soon recognized, though for a long time the custom of wearing cloth leggings was persisted in.

† By this invention of Jacquard, silks of the most beautiful fancy patterns could be woven as readily as plain silks. This innovation received much opposition at first from the workmen, but soon became universal.

‡ For the pronunciation of all these proper names, see the INDEX

German composers.

Haydn (1732–1809), especially noted for his symphonies; but his most popular works are the oratorio of the *Creation* and his cantata the *Seasons*.

Mozart (1756–1791), perhaps the greatest musical genius that ever lived, and a perfect master of the art. He excelled in every species of composition, but his masterpieces are his operas and symphonies.

Beethoven (1770–1827), one of the greatest of modern composers. His symphonies and his opera of *Fidelio* are his principal works.

BEETHOVEN.

Weber (1786–1826), composer of the popular operas *Der Freischütz* and *Oberon*, with many other works.

Schubert (1797–1828), a writer of almost every kind of musical composition, but especially noted for his songs.

Mendelssohn (1809–1847), composer of the oratorios *Elijah* and *St. Paul*, with several well-known symphonies, and many other works of merit.

Meyerbeer (1794–1864), author of several grand operas, of which *Robert le Diable*, the *Huguenots*, and the *Prophet* are the best known.

Schumann (1810–1856), noted for his symphonies and his songs.

Wagner (1813–1883), one of the greatest composers; author of the grand operas—musical dramas—*Tannhäuser*, *Lohengrin*, the *Meistersinger*, and other works of extraordinary merit.

85. Among Italian composers may be mentioned:

Italian composers.

Stradella (1645–1678), noted as a singer, violinist, and composer.

Piccini (1728–1800), the composer of many operas.

Cimarosa (1750–1801), a musician of great genius; he composed a large number of operas and other works.

Rossini (1792–1868), one of the greatest of composers. Many of his operas are very popular.

Donizetti (1798–1848), author of many popular operas.

Bellini (1802–1835), a very celebrated composer; his operas *Norma* *Somnambula*, and the *Puritans* are very popular.

Verdi (born 1814), noted for his numerous operas.

To these may be added the noted French composers **Auber** (1782–1871) and **Gounod** (born 1818), both of whom have written several popular operas; and **Berlioz** (1803–1869), one of the greatest of modern composers. While some of the other countries of Europe have produced a few eminent composers, Italy and Germany, as already stated, have far surpassed them all.

Other composers.

86. Painting had its greatest representatives in the age just succeeding and connected with the mediæval period, which was illumined by the genius of Leonardo da Vinci in Italy and Albert Durer in Germany. The greatest artists of that age were Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Titian in Italy, and Quentin Matsys and Louis Kranach in Germany, the latter a personal friend of Luther. In more decidedly modern times, the Italian school includes a host of luminaries, such as Correggio, the three Caraccis of Bologna, Salvator Rosa, and Carlo Dolci. These all belong to the seventeenth century; and have but few successors of great merit in later times. Holbein, Rubens, Van Dyck, Rembrandt, and many others of the Flemish and Dutch schools were their contemporaries; and the Spanish and French schools contained several others of kindred genius and merit. Velasquez (1599–1660) and Murillo (1618–1682) are the special pride of Spanish art. Sculpture has its greatest representatives in the Italians Benvenuto Cellini (1500–1570), Antonio Canova (1757–1822), and the Danish artist Thorwaldsen (1770–1844), whose chief works were executed in Rome; but a host of others have achieved distinction in this branch of art.

Painting.

Sculpture.

87. Science in each of its departments has been extended by the efforts of men of various nationalities. Only a few of the great names can be given in this brief sketch, in addition to those already referred to in the histories of England and France. Among the distinguished mathematicians may be specially mentioned:

Science.

Cardan (1501–1576), an Italian, a man of wonderful genius, but noted for his eccentricities.

Mathematicians.

Napier (1550–1617), a Scotchman, the inventor of logarithms.

Leibnitz (1646–1716), a German, not only eminent as a mathematician (claiming against Newton the invention of fluxions), but in almost every other department of science and philosophy.

Euler (1707–1783), born in Switzerland, one of the greatest masters of mathematical science.

88. In astronomy the following persons have distinguished themselves for important discoveries:

Astronomers.

Copernicus (1473–1543), a Pole, the reviver of the true theory of the solar system, which places the sun in the center, in opposition to the system of Ptolemy, which conceived the earth to be the center of the universe.

Tycho Brahé (1546–1601), a Dane, noted for the vast number of facts he collected at his great observatory in Copenhagen, and for his theory of the solar system, called the Tychonic System.

COPERNICUS.

Galileo (1564–1642), the illustrious Italian physicist, who, improving upon the telescope previously invented in Holland, discovered the spots on the sun and the four satellites of Jupiter. He also asserted the rotation of the earth, in opposition to the prevailing notion that the earth is fixed in the center of the universe. Galileo also discovered the value of the pendulum in the construction of clocks.

Kepler (1571–1630), a German astronomer, the illustrious discoverer of the great laws of planetary motion.

Huyghens (or *Huygens*) (1629–1695), a Dutch astronomer, the discoverer of Saturn's ring and one of its satellites.

Cassini (1625–1712), an Italian, discovered four satellites of Saturn, and made other important discoveries in relation to several of the planets. His son, *James Cassini*, discovered the divisions in Saturn's ring.

Other noted astronomers of the period have been mentioned in connection with English and French history.

89. There are many other renowned discoverers and writers within the domain of physical science and natural history, among whom we may mention:

Discoverers and writers.

Torricelli (1608–1647), an Italian, the inventor of the barometer.
Guericke (1602–1686), a German, the inventor of the air-pump.
Fahrenheit (1690–1736), a Hollander, who invented the mercurial thermometer that bears his name.
Linnæus (1707–1778), a Swedish naturalist, the author of the artificial or Linnæan system of botany.
Haller (1708–1777), sometimes called the "Father of Physiology;" one of the world's great physicians. His writings are very numerous.
Galvani (1737–1798), an Italian, the discoverer of galvanism.
Volta (1745–1827), an Italian, the inventor of the voltaic pile or battery.
Dr. Gall (1758–1828), a German, the founder of phrenology.
Mesmer (1734–1815), the discoverer of animal magnetism, or mesmerism.
Lavater (1741–1801), the famous writer on *Physiognomy*.
Dr. Hahnemann (1755–1843), a German, the originator of homeopathy.
Humboldt (1769–1859), the illustrious German natural philosopher, noted for his deep and wide researches into the laws of the physical universe, explained in his great work called *Kosmos*.
Oersted (1777–1851), a Dane, who discovered the identity of magnetism and electricity.
Liebig (1803–1873), a celebrated German chemist, and writer on agricultural and physiological chemistry.

90. The literary history of Europe during the period of modern history is enriched with the productions of every department of genius. In a rapid glance the mind rests upon only a few of the most conspicuous in this vast field. The prominent characters in French and English literature have been already presented, and a brief summary of the great names in the literature of other countries. Among the writers of the sixteenth century may particularly be mentioned the following:

Literature.

Great names.

Sixteenth century.

Erasmus (1467–1536), a celebrated Dutch scholar and philosopher, one of the restorers of ancient learning, at the head of the literary world in his age.

Scaliger (1484–1558), an Italian philologist, one of the most famous scholars and writers of his time.

Tasso (1544–1595), an Italian poet, noted for his great poem *Jerusalem Delivered*, founded on the First Crusade.

Camoëns (1524–1579), the only eminent Portuguese poet. His great poem the *Lusiad* celebrates the naval exploits of the Portuguese.

Cervantes (1547–1616), the noted Spanish writer, author of the famous satirical novel *Don Quixote*.

Vega, Lope de (1562–1635), a Spanish dramatist, who wrote a vast number of popular plays, some of very great merit.

91. Of the writers of the seventeenth century, the following deserve to be especially mentioned:

Seventeenth century.

Quevedo (1580–1645), a Spanish author of great fame, noted for his critical and political writings.

Grotius, Hugo (1583–1645), an eminent Dutch jurist, theologian, and writer. He was a profound and versatile scholar as well as writer. One of his best known works is a treatise *On the Truth of the Christian Religion*.

SCHILLER.

Calderon (de la Barca) (1600–1681), a noted Spanish dramatist.

Spinoza (1632–1677), born in Amsterdam, of Hebrew extraction; one of the most celebrated speculative philosophers of his age; his writings are skeptical or atheistical.

Salvator Rosa (1615–1673), illustrious as a painter and a poet. He has been called by some the Juvenal of Italy.

Muratori (1672–1750), one of the most noted historical writers of Italy.

92. From the vast host of writers of the eighteenth century, we may particularize the following:

Eighteenth century.

Swedenborg (1688–1772), born in Sweden, one of the most prolific writers on various scientific subjects, but chiefly known for his claims to a new and special revelation, on which the Church of the New Jerusalem is founded.

Mosheim (1694–1755), celebrated as the author of an *Ecclesiastical*

History, which for many years was the chief standard upon that subject.

Metastasio (1698–1782), the most illustrious of modern Italian poets. He wrote operas, oratorios, sonnets, and miscellaneous poems.

Klopstock (1708–1803), a noted German poet. His great work is an epic poem called *The Messiah*.

Kant, Immanuel (1724–1804), one of the most celebrated of German metaphysicians.

Lessing (1729–1781), a celebrated German poet and dramatist.

Wieland (1733–1813), a noted German poet and novelist.

Heyne (1729–1812), an illustrious German scholar and critic. His editions of the classical writers are highly esteemed.

Schiller (1759–1805), one of the most illustrious of German poets. His dramas *Wallenstein*, *Mary Stuart*, *William Tell*, and the *Robbers* are among his greatest works. He also wrote a *History of the Thirty Years' War*.

Herder (1744–1803), one of the most gifted and versatile of German writers. His works are critical and philosophical.

Alfieri (1749–1803), the most celebrated Italian poet of the century. He wrote many tragedies of singular merit, and many miscellaneous poems. His character and genius resembled those of Lord Byron, to whom he has been often compared.

RICHTER.

Pestalozzi (1746–1827), one of the most celebrated teachers and writers upon education in his age. His great work was the development of the system of object-teaching.

93. The nineteenth century has been exceedingly prolific in men of genius. Its chief characteristic has been intellectual activity in every department of literature and science. To the names already given in connection with France and England we add the following:

Nineteenth century.

Richter, John Paul (1763–1825), a German writer of great eminence; his style is very beautiful, and his works are noted for their humor, originality, and pathos. Most of his writings have been translated into English and other languages.

Fichte (1762–1814), a noted German metaphysician. He was distinguished more for his lectures than his writings. His system of philosophy is known as "idealism."

Hegel (1770–1831), one of the most distinguished thinkers and writers of the German school of philosophy,—the founder of a new school of speculative doctrine.

Schelling (1775–1854), a German philosopher, one of the four great representatives of the speculative philosophy of Germany—Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, all of whom were contemporary.

Goethe (1749–1832), the greatest name in German literature. Goethe was remarkable both as a poet and a prose writer. His drama called *Faust* is a wonderful work of genius. Among his most popular prose writings are *The Sorrows of Werther* and *Wilhelm Meister*.

GOETHE.

Froebel (1782–1852), a noted educator; the founder of the famous Kindergarten system of elementary instruction.

Niebuhr (1776–1831), a German historian, whose researches into the history of Rome have made his name illustrious.

Neander (1789–1850), a German church historian. His great work, a *General History of the Christian Religion and Church*, is a standard.

Heine (1799–1856), one of the most distinguished of German poets.

Pushkin (1799–1837), a Russian lyric poet of negro descent; regarded by the Russians as their greatest poet, called sometimes the "Byron of Russia."

Lermontoff (1814–1841), a native of Russia, called the "Russian Schiller," on account of his poetical genius.

Bremer, Frederika (1801–1866), a celebrated Swedish novelist. Her translated works are very popular in the United States and England.

Andersen, Hans Christian (1805–1875), a Danish writer of remarkable genius, chiefly noted for his juvenile works of fiction.

Mommsen (born 1817), a German historian, particularly noted for his *History of Rome*, which has been translated into English.

Curtius, Ernst (born 1814), a celebrated German historian. His great work the *History of Greece* has been translated into English. His other works treat of the antiquities of Greece.

Review Outline.

Dates.	Great Events.
	Sixteenth Century.—The great events of this century are connected with: (1) The **Rise of Protestantism,** in the reign of Charles V. (1519–56). (2) The **English Reformation,** in the reigns of Henry VIII. (1509–47), Edward VI. (1547–53), and Elizabeth (1558–1603). (3) The **Rise of the Dutch Republic,** in the reign of Philip II. (1555–98). (4) The **Religious Wars in France,** in the reigns of Charles IX. (1560–74), Henry III. (1574–89), and Henry IV. (till 1590). (5) The **Ottoman Military Enterprises,** under Bajazet II. (1481–1512), Selim I. (1512–20), and Solyman II. (1520–56). (6) The **Portuguese Maritime Enterprises,** in the reign of Emanuel the Fortunate (1495–1521).
	(1) **Rise of Protestantism.**
1517	Luther published his theses against Catholic tenets.
1521	Luther at the Diet at Worms.
1529	The Lutherans protest at Spire. Called Protestants.
1531	The League of the Protestants at Smalcald.
1545	Council of Trent opened. Closed 1563.
	Frederick of Saxony defeated at Mühlberg.
1546	Death of Martin Luther.
1552	Treaty of Passau between Charles V. and Maurice.
1555	Peace of Augsburg. Religious freedom granted to the Protestants.
	(2) **English Reformation.** (See England.)
	(3) **Rise of the Dutch Republic.**
1572	Revolt of several of the Provinces under William the Silent, Stadtholder.
1579	Union of the Seven Provinces. Foundation of the Republic.
1581	Independence of the United Provinces proclaimed.
1584	Death of William the Silent by assassination.
	(4) **Religious Wars in France.** (See France.)
	(5) **Ottoman Military Enterprises.**
1520	Accession of Solyman the Magnificent. Zenith of Turkish power.
1521	Belgrade, the Servian capital, taken by the Ottomans.
1522	The island of Rhodes taken by Solyman.
1529	Solyman's army repulsed at Vienna after a long siege.
1532	Second repulse of the Ottomans at Vienna.
1556	Unsuccessful attack of the Ottomans upon Malta.
1571	Great naval defeat of the Ottomans at Lepanto.
	(6) **Portuguese Maritime Enterprises.**
1500	Brazil accidentally discovered by Cabral.
1501–3	Voyages of Amerigo Vespucci to the coast of Brazil.
1505	Ceylon visited and partly conquered by the Portuguese.
1511	Conquest of Malacca by the Portuguese.
1542	The Japan Islands discovered by the Portuguese.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—The great events of this century are connected with:

(1) The **Thirty Years' War** (1618–1648).
(2) The **Great Civil War** in England (1642–1651).
(3) The **Age of Louis XIV.** in France (1643–1715).
(4) The **Rise of Russia** under Peter the Great (1682–1725).
(5) The **Turkish Wars.**
(6) The **Maritime Power of the Dutch.**

(1) **Thirty Years' War.**

1620 Frederick, Elector Palatine, defeated near Prague.
1620 Dreadful persecution of the Bohemian Protestants.
1625 League of the North German states, under Christian IV. of Denmark.
1629 Treaty of peace between Denmark and Germany.
1631 Defeat of Tilly by Gustavus Adolphus near Leipsic.
1632 Battle of Lutzen. Death of Gustavus Adolphus.
1634 Assassination of Wallenstein.
1635 French intervention in the war, under Richelieu.
1637 Death of the emperor Ferdinand II.
1648 Peace of Westphalia. Protestant independence established.

(2) **Great Civil War in England.** (See ENGLAND.)

(3) **Age of Louis XIV.** (See FRANCE.)

(4) **Rise of Russia.**

1697–8 Visit of Peter the Great to England and other countries of Europe.

(5) **Turkish Wars.**

1683 The Ottomans repulsed at Vienna by John Sobieski.
1697 Splendid victory of Prince Eugene over the Turks at Zenta.
1699 Treaty of peace with the Turks. Hungarian possessions given back.

(6) **Maritime Power of the Dutch.** (See ENGLAND and FRANCE.)

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—The great events of this century are connected with:

(1) **England under the Georges** (1714–1815).
(2) **Prussia under Frederick the Great** (1740–86).
(3) **Russian Military Operations** (under Peter the Great and the Catharines).
(4) **Decline and Fall of Poland.**
(5) **Decline and Fall of the French Government.**

(1) **England under the Georges.** (See ENGLAND.)

(2) **Prussia under Frederick the Great.**

1741 Invasion of Silesia by Frederick the Great.
1745 Capture of Dresden by the Prussians. Treaty of peace.
1757–8 Victories of Frederick the Great over the French, Austrians, and Russians.
1763 Treaty of peace between Austria and Prussia.

(3) **Russian Military Operations.**

1700 Defeat of Peter the Great by Charles XII. of Sweden at Narva.
1703 Capital of Russia removed from Moscow to St. Petersburg.
1707 Invasion of Russia by Charles XII.
1709 Victory of Peter the Great over Charles XII. at Poltava.

1725	Accession of Catharine I., empress of Russia. Menschikoff minister.
1741	Accession of Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine.
1762	Accession of Catharine II. Potemkin minister.
1758	Defeat of the Russians at Zorndorf by Frederick the Great.
	(4) Decline and Fall of Poland.
1772	First Partition of Poland.
1793	Second Partition of Poland.
1794	Defeat of the Poles under Kosciusko by Suvaroff.
1795	Third Partition of Poland.
	(5) Decline and Fall of the French Government. (See FRANCE.)
	NINETEENTH CENTURY.—The great events of this century are connected with:
	(1) The **Career of Napoleon.** (See FRANCE.)
	(2) The **Progress of Liberalism in England.** (See ENGLAND.)
	(3) The **Aggressions of Russia.**
	(4) The **Growth of Prussia under Bismarck.**
	(5) The **Unification of Italy,** under Victor Emanuel.
	(6) The **Decline of Turkish Power in Europe** (Eastern Question).
	(3) Aggressions of Russia.
1920	Poland absorbed in the Russian Empire.
1853–5	Crimean War. Sebastopol taken by the French and English.
1859	Defeat and overthrow of Shamyl in the Caucasus.
1865–75	Russian conquests in Central Asia.
1877–8	The Eastern War—between Russia and Turkey.
	(4) Growth of Prussia under William I. (1861).
1862	Bismarck prime minister of William I. of Prussia.
1864	Schleswig and Holstein occupied by Prussia and Austria.
1866	Holstein invaded and occupied by Prussian troops.
1866	Austro-Prussian War, called the Seven Weeks' War.
1866	Severe defeat of the Austrians at Sadowa.
1866	North German Confederation, under the headship of Prussia.
1870	The Prussian victories in the Franco-Prussian war.
	Paris entered by the Germans.
1871	William I. made emperor of Germany.
	(5) Unification of Italy.
1849	Accession of Victor Emanuel to the throne of Sardinia.
1860	Victories of Garibaldi in Sicily and Naples.
1861	Victor Emanuel elected king of Italy.
1870	Rome entered by Victor Emanuel, and made the capital of Italy.
1878	Death of Victor Emanuel. Accession of Humbert I.
	(6) Decline of the Turkish Power.
1820	Insurrection of the Greeks. Mavrocordato president.
1823	Death of Marco Bozzaris, the Greek patriot and general.
1827	The Turkish fleet defeated at Navarino.
1829	The independence of Greece acknowledged by the Turkish sultan
1867	Ismail Pasha hereditary viceroy (khedive) of Egypt.
1877–8	Turkish armies defeated by the Russians.
1878	Treaty of Berlin. Partial dismemberment of Turkey.

A.D.	ENGLAND.	FRANCE.	OTHER COUNTRIES.
1483		Charles VIII.	
1485	Henry VII.		
1493			Maximilian of Germany.
1498		Louis XII.	
1509	Henry VIII.		
1515		Francis I.	
1519			Charles V. of Germany.
1520			Solyman the Magnificent.
1547	Edward VI.	Henry II.	
1552			Treaty of Passau.
1553	Mary.		
1556			Philip II. of Spain.
1558	Elizabeth.		
1559		Francis II.	
1560		Charles IX.	
1571			Battle of Lepanto.
1574		Henry III.	
1579			William the Silent.
1589		Henry IV.	
1603	James I.		
1610		Louis XIII.	Moors expelled from Spain
1618			Thirty Years' War begins.
1625	Charles I.		
1632			Battle of Lutzen.
1640			Portugal independent.
1643		Louis XIV.	
1648			Peace of Westphalia.
1653	Cromwell, Protector.		
1660	Charles II.		
1683			Sobieski defeats the Turks.
1685	James II.		
1689	William and Mary.		
1700			Battle of Narva.
1702	Anne.		
1709			Battle of Poltava.
1714	George I.		
1715		Louis XV.	
1718			Death of Charles XII.
1727	George II.		
1740			Frederick the Great.
1760	George III.		
1774		Louis XVI.	
1789		French Revolution.	
1795			Third Partition of Poland.
1799		Napoleon First Consul.	
1804		Napoleon Emperor.	
1806			End of German Empire.
1814		Louis XVIII.	
1820	George IV.		
1824		Charles X.	
1825			Brazil independent.
1827			Battle of Navarino.
1830	William IV.	Louis Philippe.	
1833			Isabella of Spain.
1837	Victoria.		
1848		Louis Philippe dethroned.	
1849			Victor Emanuel.
1852		Napoleon III.	
1855			Sebastopol taken.
1859			Battle of Solferino.
1861			Russian serfs freed.
1870		Battle of Sedan	Rome capital of Italy.
1871		Thiers, President	William, German emperor.
1873		McMahon, President.	
1878			Treaty of Berlin.
1879		Grèvy, President.	

Emperors of Germany,

From Maximilian I. (1493) to the Close of the Empire (1806).

Name.	*Date of Reign.*
Maximilian I	1493–1519
Charles V	1519–1556
Ferdinand I.	1556–1564
Maximilian II.	1564–1576
Rudolf II.	1576–1612
Matthias	1612–1619
Ferdinand II.	1619–1637
Ferdinand III.	1637–1657
Leopold I.	1658–1705
Charles VI.	1711–1740
Maria Theresa and Francis I.	1740–1780
Joseph II.	1780–1790
Leopold II.	1790–1792
Francis II.	1792–1806

Topical Review.

NOTED PERSONAGES.

Who were they?
For what noted?

	PAGE
Martin Luther	599, 600, 601
Frederick of Saxony	599, 601
Maurice of Saxony	601
Tilly	602, 603
Wallenstein	602, 603
Gustavus Adolphus	603, 622
John Sobieski	604, 626, 633
Prince Eugene	604
Maria Theresa	605, 611
Frederick the Great	605, 611, 612
Bismarck	606, 607
Kossuth	608
William the Silent	612, 613
Melanchthon	600, 614
William the Great Elector	609
John Calvin	614
Zwingli	614
Charles Albert	615
Joseph Garibaldi	615
Victor Emanuel	615, 616
Cardinal Ximenes	616
Vasco da Gama	619
Gustavus Vasa	622
Charles XII. of Sweden	623, 628, 629
Bernadotte	623
Prince Poniatowski	626
Thaddeus Kosciusko	626
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Menshikoff	629
General Suvaroff	629
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Mavrocordato	635
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NOTED EVENTS.

When did they occur?
What led to them?
What resulted therefrom?

	PAGE
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Confession of Augsburg	600
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Battle of Zorndorf	611
Revolt of the Netherlands	612
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Expulsion of the Moors from Spain	618
Independence of the Spanish Colonies	619
Discovery of Brazil	619
Battle of Poltava	623, 629
Fall of Poland	626, 630
Battle of Navarino	635
Independence of Greece	635

CHAPTER XII

SUPPLEMENTARY.

I. ASIATIC STATES.

1. China. The most important event in the modern history of China is the successful invasion of the empire by the Mantchou Tartars in the seventeenth century, followed (1644) by the overthrow of the reigning dynasty in favor of that which now occupies the throne. In the sixteenth century the Portuguese began to trade with the Chinese; but the Dutch, who made repeated efforts to obtain admission into the ports of China, were constantly repulsed; though the Russians were permitted to trade in the empire as early as the middle of the sixteenth century. The British sought for some time for a similar permission, but obtained no encouragement until Lord Macartney's famous embassy (1793). The most important event in recent times was the famous Taiping rebellion, which broke out in 1850. It was both religious and political in its character; and before it was crushed, in 1864, the fairest provinces of the empire were laid waste, and an enormous number of lives sacrificed.

Tartar invasion.

Foreign trade.

Taiping rebellion.

2. Japan. The first notice of Japan by any European traveler or explorer was that made by Marco Polo, who during his travels in the East (see page 153) visited an island which he called Zipangu, of the riches of which he gave a glowing account. The Portuguese some time afterward made a discovery of the island; and in 1549 it was visited by the far-famed missionary St. Francis Xavier, called the Apostle of the Indies; and many of the Japanese were converted to Christianity. In the seventeenth century, the Portuguese were expelled from the empire, and the Christians were persecuted, a great massacre of them occurring in 1622. The Japanese trade was then transferred to the Dutch, who had a monopoly of it for more than two centuries, the ports of Japan being closed against all other foreign powers

Early accounts.

Christianity.

Foreign trade.

3. In 1853, through the expedition of Commodore Perry, a treaty was made between the United States and Japan, by which certain ports were opened to American trade; and in 1858 Townsend Harris, American consul-general to Japan, was enabled to reach Yedo (now Tokio) and to negotiate a still more favorable treaty. Other foreign powers soon obtained similar privileges; and the Japanese, seeing the superiority of American and European civilization, sent embassies to different countries, the first one visiting the United States in 1860.

Treaty with the United States.

4. The empire was then ruled in a peculiar manner, the actual powers of government being in possession of an officer called the *Shogun* (commander-in-chief) or *Tycoon* (great sovereign), residing at Yedo, while the emperor, named *Mikado*, held the title, and the symbols of authority and dignity at another place. This state of things was the result of a usurpation which took place in 1195 on the part of the shogun of that time. In 1868 a revolution occurred by which the mikado was restored to his proper authority; and this was followed by a more liberal and enlightened policy in every respect, since which the empire has made wonderful progress in every element of modern civilization. Yokohama, a mere fishing village when Commodore Perry entered the bay with his squadron, is now a great commercial city of nearly 70,000 inhabitants.

Government.

Progress.

5. The civilization of Japan resembles that of the Chinese, as to manners and customs, language, and religion. The prevailing systems of the latter are *Shintoism* and Buddhism. The former is a kind of polytheism of a superior grade, the chief feature being the worship of the spirits of ancestors and departed heroes, to whom sacrifices are offered. The most prevalent system, however, is Buddhism, as it has been for more than ten centuries, notwithstanding an attempt to uproot it, which was made shortly after the restoration of the mikado to his legitimate supremacy.

Civilization.

6. **India.** At the commencement of the mediæval history, the peninsula of Hindostan was divided into many small states, of the history of which little or nothing is known. In the early part of the eighth century the Mohammedan sovereigns of Persia, Afghanistan, and other states began their conquests, which were continued for several centuries; and, at the commencement of the thirteenth, the greater portion of northern Hindostan was subjugated. Soon after this a great independent Mo-

Mediæval history.

hammedan empire was formed, having its capital at Delhi, which in the latter part of the century included all northern India. From this the Mohammedan dominions were gradually extended to the south, the whole of the Deccan soon being annexed. (See map, page 511.)

7. Toward the end of the fourteenth century, the great and terrible invasion of Tamerlane occurred; and Delhi being captured was given over to massacre and pillage, the conqueror proclaiming himself emperor of India. The restless warrior soon departed, however, leaving ruin and desolation in his track. In the sixteenth century commenced the rule of the Moguls (Mongols), founded by a descendant of the great Tamerlane, the most noted of whom was the famous Aurungzebe (*o-rung zabe'*) (1657–1707), who had an eventful reign of nearly fifty years. He was virtually the last Great Mogul; for after his death the empire fell to pieces, different provinces being held as independent states by military usurpers. Among these the Mahratta empire was the most important. About the middle of the eighteenth century the French and English contended for mastery in India; and through the genius of Clive the latter gained the supremacy, which was afterward confirmed by the wonderful military and administrative ability of Warren Hastings. (See ENGLAND.)

Moguls.

English conquest.

8. **Persia.** The defeat of Khosru by the emperor Heraclius has been referred to (page 17), as well as the destruction of the dynasty of the Sassanides by the Saracens, which soon ensued, the great victory which the latter gained at Cadesia, followed by another, five years later (641), determining the fate of that famous line of kings. The Persians were then compelled to embrace Mohammedanism; though a considerable number persisted in their ancient faith, in spite of bitter persecution. These were called *Guébres*, or *Ghébers* (infidels), their descendants being the present remnant of the Parsees. (See Part I., pp. 79 and 80.)

Changes in government.

9. For two centuries Persia was under the sway of the Caliphs, till, in the ninth century, an adventurer named Soffar headed a revolt by which the Saracen government was overturned; and a dynasty of kings succeeded named after their founder the Sof-far'i-des, which was destroyed by the Seljuks, who conquered and ruled over Persia and Afghanistan. These in turn were subjugated by the Mongols under Genghis Khan, who established his empire in the twelfth century; but two centuries later it was overrun by Tamerlane. His death was followed by a long series of civil wars, which continued till the sixteenth century, when a

Further changes.

succession of energetic monarchs held the throne, among them the renowned Abbas (1587–1628).

10. In the eighteenth century Persia was conquered by the Afghans (1722); but they were soon afterward expelled by Nadir Shah (1736), who thus obtained the throne, which has ever since been occupied by his successors. After the death of this monarch, in 1747, Afghanistan became independent. During this period Persia has been engaged in wars with Russia (1813 and 1828), which resulted in the loss of Georgia and other frontier provinces; also, in a war with England (1856–7) in which the British troops under General Havelock gained several victories. The population, in recent years, has been reduced by dreadful famines (1860 and 1871–2), in the latter of which, it is said, more than two millions of people perished.

Later history.

11. Turkistan. In early times the western part of this region was known as Turania; and there were fierce and long-continued contests between the Turanians who occupied this country and the Iranians of the region farther south (Persia). Mongolian invasions from the fourth to the tenth century changed considerably the character of the population. This country was ruled over successively by Genghis Khan and Timour or Tamerlane, and their successors.* Those of the latter held sway until they were driven out by a tribe of Tartars called Uzbecks, who established a powerful monarchy that lasted about 160 years, when it was broken up into several small states, or khanates, of which Bokhara, Khiva, and Khokan were the chief. Most of these have recently been conquered by Russia, which has thus extended its dominion over a large part of central Asia.

Historical sketch.

II. American States.

[The events connected with the colonization of North America and the history of the United States are not presented here, as this branch of history is treated in text-books specially devoted to that subject, which in elementary schools usually precedes the study of general history.]

NORTH AMERICA.

12. Mexico and Central America. Previous to the discovery of America by Columbus, this region was inhabited by a people called the

* *Tamerlane* is a corruption of Timour Lenk, or Timour the Lame. This mighty warrior was born in 1336. He conceived the idea of reviving the empire of Genghis Khan, and after accomplishing this his restless ambition prompted him to other

Aztecs, who had attained to a quite advanced state of civilization; and the ruins which still greet the traveler amid the overgrowing forests attest the genius, knowledge, and enterprise of this remarkable race. The great Aztec nation in Mexico was subjugated by a few Spaniards under the bold and unscrupulous Cortez, and thus became a Spanish province (1521). It thus remained for three centuries, when it became an independent empire under a military adventurer (1822). After his fall a republic was established (1824). Owing to the restless ambition of its leaders, its government has been very unsettled. Among these the most noted was Santa Anna, conspicuous in the war between Mexico and the United States (1846–7). In 1864 Mexico was under the imperial government of the Austrian archduke Maximilian, but his government was overturned by an insurrection under a Mexican leader, who caused the emperor to be shot (1867). The republic was then re-established. Central America was divided, in 1823, into five states, created under the title of the "United States of Central America," but in 1839 the union was dissolved, and the states became independent republics.

Mexico.

Central America.

SOUTH AMERICA.

13. **Brazil** was discovered in 1500 by a Portuguese navigator named Cabral, who took possession of the country for the crown of Portugal, although the coast had been visited previously by one of the companions of Columbus. Settlements were afterward made along the coast by the Portuguese, in whose possession the country continued until its independence was acknowledged in 1825. (See page 333). The Amazon River was first explored by a Spaniard, named Orellana (*o-rel-yah'nah*), in 1539.

Discovery.

14. **Peru.** After Balboa had crossed the isthmus of Darien, in 1513, he turned to the southward and penetrated many miles into the country. Subsequently, Francisco Pi-zar'ro, a brave but cruel leader, who had accompanied Balboa in the previous expedition, sailed from Panama with a company of less than 200 men, and landed on the western coast of Peru—the wealthiest and most powerful state in America at the time of its discovery. By means of the basest treachery and the most revolting cruelties, Pizarro succeeded in effecting the conquest of the country, although the unfor-

Pizarro.

conquests. His capital was Samarcand. He perished in an expedition across the Jaxartes, in 1405. His descendant Baber was the founder of the Mogul dynasty in India.

tunate natives defended their liberties with admirable spirit and valor (1533). The monster, Pizarro, was afterward assassinated (1541). After Pizarro's conquest Peru became the chief seat of the Spanish empire in America, and Lima (*le'mah*), its capital, rose to a very high degree of magnificence. It received from Pizarro the appellation of the City of the Kings.

15. Chili, Venezuela, etc.—Chili, which originally belonged to the native Peruvian empire, was conquered by two of the successors of Pizarro, one of whom founded Santiago (*sahn-te-ah'go*) in 1541. Southern Chili was so bravely defended by the Indians, that it resisted for centuries the rule of the invaders. Venezuela (*ven-e-zwe'lah*) was so called by Vespucci and Ojeda (*o-ha'dah*), the latter one of the companions of Columbus, who, near the Lake of Maracaybo (*mah-rah-ki'bo*), discovered an Indian village built on piles in the water. Hence, they named it Venezuela, or Little Venice (1499). The interior of the country was not conquered till the middle of the next century. The Rio de la Plata was explored in 1530, by Sebastian Cabot, then in the service of Spain; and, in 1580, the city of Buenos Ayres (*bo'nus a'riz*) was founded by the Spaniards.

Chili.

Venezuela.

La Plata.

16. Thus, nearly all South America, except Brazil, fell into the possession of Spain, and was retained under her rule until the beginning of the present century, when, by a series of revolutions, commencing in Chili, this extensive region was wrested from her, and formed into independent states. Peru was the last to secure her independence, which was acknowledged in 1826. The most prominent individual connected with these movements was the patriot Bol'i-var, in honor of whom the republic of Bo-liv'i-a received its name. Nine states now occupy the territory formerly included in the several Spanish viceroyalties of South America: Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador (*ek-wah-dore'*), Co-lom'bia, Venezuela, Chili, the Argentine Republic, Paraguay (*pah-rah-gwi'*), and Uruguay (*oo-roo-gwi'*). These states, since their formation, have been under republican governments, but have been very much disturbed by internal dissensions and civil war. Recently a war has been waged between Peru and Bolivia and Chili, in which the latter has gained several important victories. Its armies now occupy the territories of the defeated republics, including the Peruvian capital Lima (1882).

Colonies independent.

INDEX.

GENERAL RULES FOR THE PRONUNCIATION OF GREEK AND LATIN NAMES.—The diacritical marks used are the same as those employed in Webster's Dictionary; and the pronunciation, when indicated, agrees with that authority.

The sound of *c* before *a*, *o*, and *u* is the same as *k*; before *e*, *i*, and *y*, the same as *s*. The sound of *g* is hard, as in *go*, before *a*, *o*, and *u*; and soft, like *j*, before *e*, *i*, and *y*. Quite general usage, however, in pronouncing Greek and Latin at present gives to *c* the uniform sound of *k*, and to *g* the hard sound.

Ch uniformly has the sound of *k*. *S*, when final and preceded by *e*, has the sound of *z*, and the *e* is long; thus *es* is pronounced *eez* as in *Andes*.

Initial *x* has the sound of *z*; initial *p* before *s* and *t*, *m* and *c* before *n*, *t* before *m*, and *ph* before a mute consonant, are silent.

T, *s*, and *c* before *ia*, *ii*, *io*, *iu*, and *eu* preceded immediately by the accent, are pronounced like *sh*; except when the *t* follows *s*, *t*, or *z*, or when the accent falls on the syllable ending with the letter *i*; as, Ae'tius = A-e'she-us, Milti'ades = Milti'a-des. In the termination *tion*, *t* retains its proper sound.

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